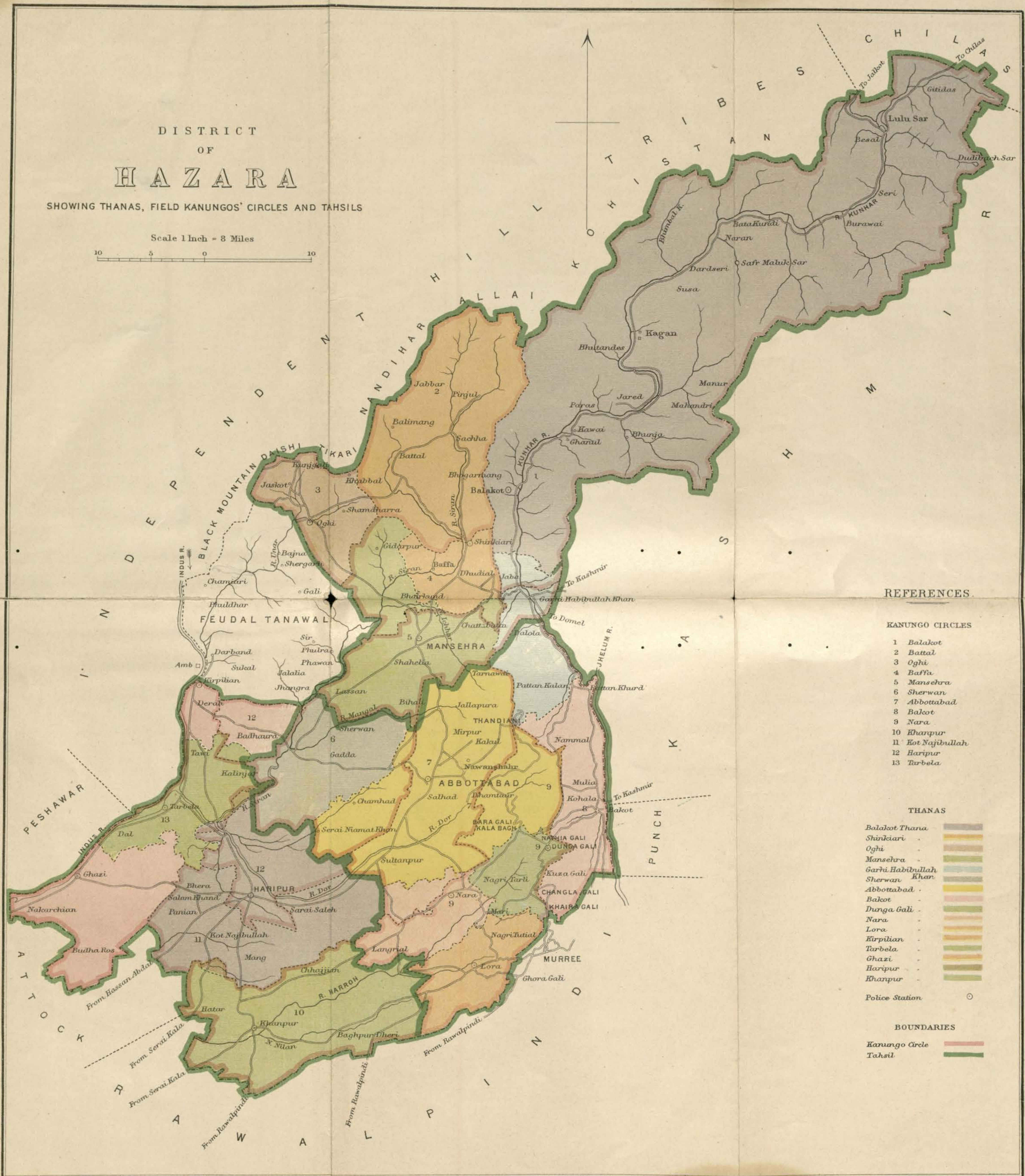
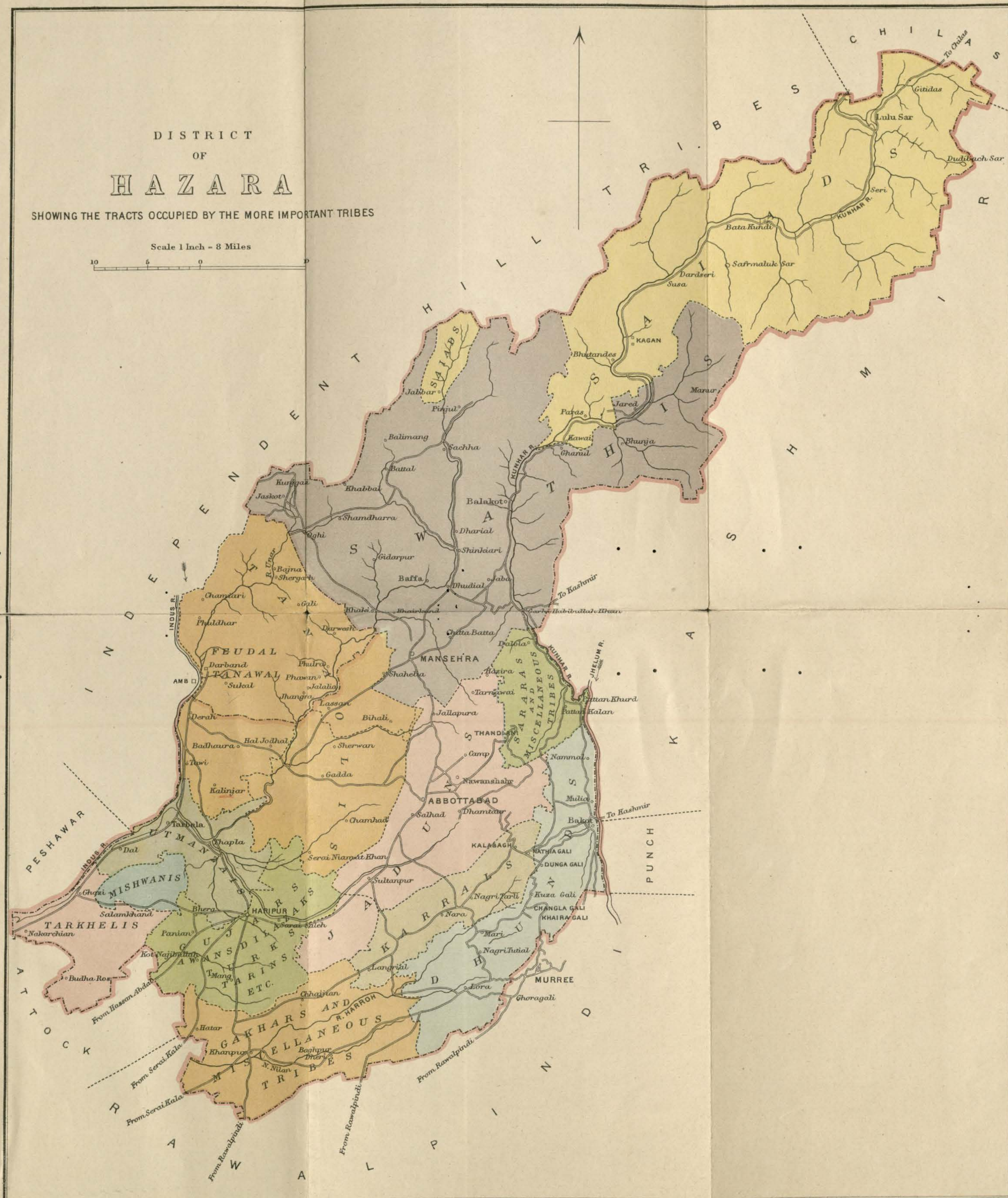
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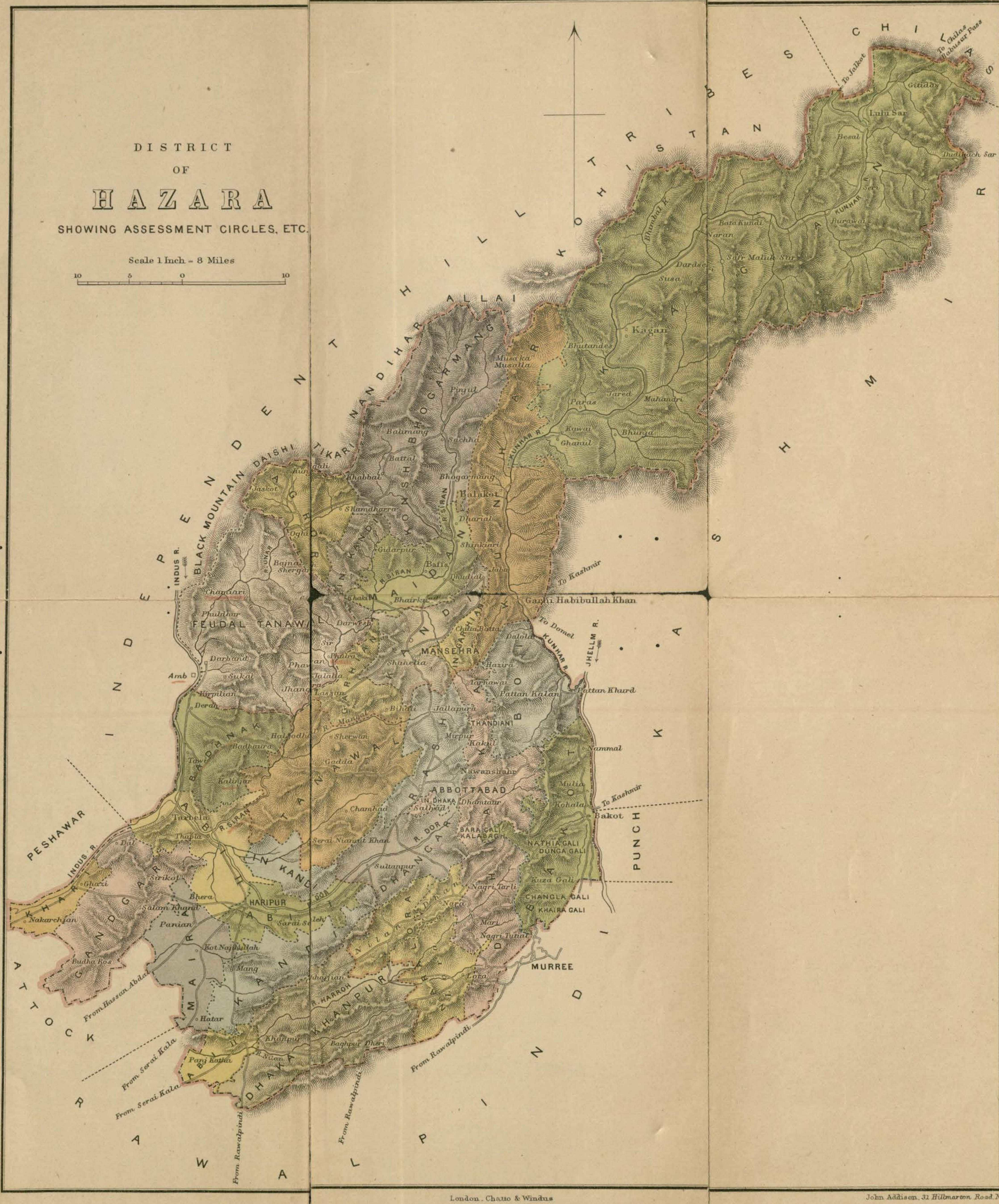
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GAZETTEER OF THE HAZARA DISTRICT, 1907

COMPILED AND EDITED BY H. D. WATSON C.S., SETTLEMENT OFFICER : UNDER THE AUTHORITY OF THE NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE GOVERNMENT : WITH MANY ILLUSTRATIONS AND FOUR MAPS

C W

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PREFACE

THE revision of the Gazetteer of the Hazara District was undertaken in connexion with the operations of the Second Regular Settlement, which were concluded in the spring of the year 1907. The old Gazetteer, which was compiled in 1884, was necessarily much out of date, and the whole has, in fact, been rewritten, with the exception of the account (which I have somewhat abbreviated) of the District's history under Sikh rule and during the Indian Mutiny, the description of the origin of its village tenures, and a few other passages. The disinterment of Major Abbott's diaries and of other documents from the archives of the Punjab Secretariat at Lahore has enabled me to give a fuller account than has heretofore been done of the critical times through which its first and most famous Deputy-Commissioner guided the fortunes of Hazara, and the opportunity has also been taken of describing in some detail our relations with the tribes across the frontier, the feudal States included within the area of the District, and the beautiful Kagan valley, which is one of its chief attractions.

The various subjects discussed, and the order in which they are treated, are in the main those of the syllabus prescribed for District Gazetteers of the Punjab. But various modifications, some suggested by a perusal of recently published Gazetteers of the United Provinces, have been introduced, and, generally, while no subject that is really material in a compilation of this kind has,

I trust, been omitted, there has been an attempt to make the form of the book somewhat more attractive. Under the orders of the Government of India the present volume is known as Vol. A. Vol. B, which contains the prescribed tables of statistics, has been published separately; but, for the convenience of readers who have not the opportunity or inclination to consult the latter volume, certain selected tables, comprising the most important and interesting statistics of the District, have been printed at the end of the present work. The nature of the remaining tables will be clear from the list given in Appendix VII.

Another novel feature of this Gazetteer consists in its illustrations, which, it is hoped, may somewhat enliven the dulness of its pages, and help the reader to realize, better than words can do, the nature of the country and its people. A number are reproductions of photographs taken by Musa Khan, the Abbottabad photographer. The photograph of Abbott was sent me by the late General Pearse, who said it was an excellent likeness. When he was in Hazara he wore a beard, but even then his hair was white, or grey, the result of the sufferings which he endured on his journey to the Caspian. The view of Nanga Parbat was taken by Captain G. A. Beazeley, R.E., and appeared in the annual Report of the Survey Department of the Government of India. The rest of the illustrations are selected from photographs given to me by the Hon. Mrs. Bruce, Dr. M. A. Stein, Colonel Colomb, of the 6th Gurkhas, Mr. A. J. W. Kitchin, I.C.S., Mr. J. S. Donald, C.I.E., my own sisters, and others, to all of whom I am greatly indebted.

In conclusion, I desire to express to the following my cordial acknowledgments for assistance received from them in my task: Major-General Barrett, C.B., supplied me with a note on the *flora* of the District and a list of its trees, shrubs, and plants, which will, I believe, be of great service and interest to all botanists who pay Hazara a visit, and I am very much obliged to him for the great

trouble which he took in the matter. The Hon. Mr. Douie, C.S.I., Settlement Commissioner of the Punjab, also gave me much assistance in botanical questions, and suggested various additions to General Barrett's list. Colonel Buchanan, of the 54th Sikhs, very kindly gave me a list of birds. For the remarks about the latter which appear in Chapter I. I am indebted to the Rev. T. Bomford, C.M.S., who also was good enough to give me notes on the *Hindki* dialect of the District, and on missionary work. The remarks on sport, game and bees are based mainly on notes furnished by Captain Beadon, Assistant Settlement Officer, and the account of the Reserved Forests is taken from a note written by Mr. Monro, Deputy-Conservator, for the Imperial Gazetteer. Lastly, I have to thank Mr. Vincent Smith and the Clarendon Press for allowing me to reproduce (in Appendix III.) the former's translation of Asoka's Edicts.

H. D. WATSON.

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GAZETTEER OF THE HAZARA DISTRICT

CHAPTER I

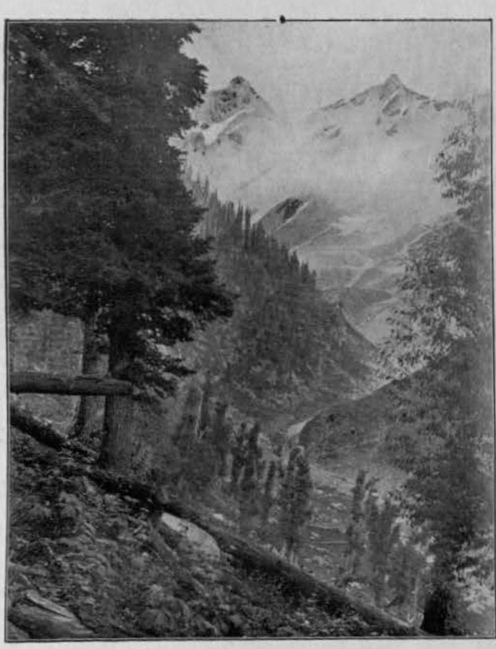
DESCRIPTIVE

Position, Area, and Boundaries of District.—Hazara lies at the base of the Himalayas, in the northernmost part of British India, between 33° 44′ and 35° 10′ N., and 72° 33′ and 74° 6′ E. In shape it is a long tongue extending for 120 miles from south-west to north-east, its tip, the Kagan valley, running up between Kashmir and the mountainous regions that drain into the Upper Indus. The southern base is 56 miles in width, the centre 40, and the Kagan valley only about 15. The District comprises three tahsils—Mansehra, Abbottabad, and Haripur—which occupy the north, centre, and south respectively, and a tract known as Feudal, or Upper, Tanawal, which lies to the west of the centre. The total area by Survey of India measurements is 3,062, or, if Feudal Tanawal is excluded, 2,858 square miles. On the east the boundaries of the District are the Kashmir and Poonch States, from the former of which it is divided by the Jhelum and Kunhar rivers, and, at the northern end, by a mountain range, and from the latter by the Jhelum only. On the west it marches with the independent territories of Kohistan, Allai, Nandihar, Daishi, Tikri, and the Black Mountain; and further south the Indus

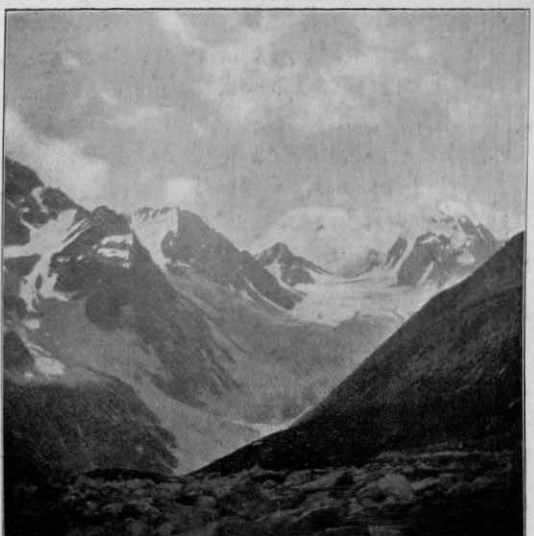
separates it from the Utmanzais and other trans-border tribes, and from a portion of the Swabi tahsil of the Peshawar District. On the northern boundary lie Chilas and part of Kohistan, and the southern is the administrative line that divides the North-West Frontier Province from the Attock and Rawalpindi Districts of the Punjab.

Mountain Ranges.—The leading physical features of Hazara are its mountain ranges. These run down either side of the District, with a trend generally from north-east to south-west. On the east the main chain is a long ridge that flanks the right bank of the Kunhar and the Jhelum and terminates in the hills of Murree and Khanpur. At the northern end its peaks attain a height of over 15,000 feet; nearer the centre, where it is known as the Dunga Gali range, it varies between 7,000 and 10,000 feet; and at the Khanpur end Sribang, the highest summit, is about 5,650 feet. From this backbone, as it were, many ribs in the shape of spurs project on either side, especially in the southern half. Those to the west are the longer, and enclose the network of valleys that are included in what are known as the Lora, Nara, and Khanpur tracts.

Separating from the above range, on the extreme north, another chain flanks the left bank of the Kunhar, and forms, as above noted, part of the boundary between Hazara and Kashmir. It contains a peak (Mali-ka-Parbat) of over 17,000 feet, the highest in the District. Shortly before the junction of the Kunhar and the Jhelum it passes wholly into Kashmir territory. The western range diverges from the eastern one at the Musa-ka-Musalla Peak (13,378 feet), on the borders of Allai. Skirting the north end of the Bhogarmang and Konsh valleys, and sending down a spur to divide the two, it encircles Agror, its western chain forming the far-famed Black Mountain (8,000 feet). Then, breaking up into numerous spurs and offshoots, it becomes the maze of hills constituting the Tanawal tract, through which the



MALI KA PARBAT (TO THE LEFT) AND RAGAN PAJJI (TO THE RIGHT), FROM THE SOUTH.



VIEW FROM PIR KI GALI, LOOKING EAST.

river Siran forces its way to join the Indus. The highest peaks here are Bhingra (8,500 feet) and Biliana (6,192 feet). The end of the range is formed by the Gandgar hills, which lie along the Indus to the south-west of the Siran, and attain a height of little more than 4,000 feet.

Plain Tracts.—The space between the mountain systems to east and west, as above described, is filled by a series of level tracts of varying size and character. First may be mentioned the Pakhli plain of the Mansehra tahsil, 3,000 feet above sea-level, 11 miles from north to south, and 10 from east to west. It is a fertile, highly cultivated tract, especially in the western portion, which is irrigated by the Siran river. Leaving the town of Mansehra on the southern edge of this plain, and crossing a low barrier of hills, one enters the Mangal tract, another plain less open and more broken than that of Pakhli, and with a strong soil of deep loam, but no irrigation to speak of. At the southern end of this tract, which is some 5 miles in length and 3 in width, a leveller and wider plain is reached, known as Orash or Rash. It is about 4 miles in extent either way, and looks as if it had once been a great lake. The centre is still very marshy in parts, but drainage has done wonders, and there are few portions which are not now dry enough to grow the maize for which the plain is famous. The Abbottabad cantonment is situated at its southern end. The Mangal and Rash tracts are both about 4,000 feet above sea-level. South of the latter there is a considerable drop, and we come to the Dor valley, which combines with the Haripur plain to form the third and the biggest of the plain tracts. Starting at a point where the Dor river debouches from the hills, it runs between the Nara and Khanpur hills on the one side, and those of Tanawal and Gandgar on the other, to the southern boundary of the District. Narrow at first, it gradually widens till in its centre at Haripur it is some 12 miles broad. Its

length from north-east to south-west is 30 miles, and its altitude gradually drops from 3,000 to 1,600 feet. Through the upper and northern portion the Dor flows, irrigating land of great fertility on either bank ; the lower end is a very level stretch of unirrigated soil, seamed here and there by deep ravines.

The above are the three chief plain tracts of the District, but a few smaller tracts of similar character deserve mention. One of them is what is known as the Khanpur Panjkatha, a well-watered plain lying in the south-eastern corner of the Haripur tahsil, where the Harroh emerges from the Khanpur hills. Another is the Khari tract, a narrow, level strip of land between the Gandgar range and the Indus. North of this is the small fertile plain of Tarbela, where the Siran joins the Indus. Then the Nara hills enclose an elevated basin called the 'Dhan,' with a moist, almost marshy soil, and on what is known as the Dhund branch of the Upper Harroh lies the Lora tract, an open valley somewhat broken by low hills. Last comes the small but level Chattar plain up at the head of the Konsh valley, in the north-west portion of the Mansehra tahsil, with a height of perhaps 5,500 feet.

Rivers—The Siran.—The important rivers of the District are the Siran, the Dor, the Harroh, and the Kunhar. The Indus and the Jhelum skirt it only, the former on the west for 30, and the latter on the east for 25 miles. The Siran takes its rise in the north of the Bhogarmang valley, flows through the western portion of Pakhli, then dives into the Tanawal hills, where part of its course is through the feudatory States of Phulra and Amb, and finally, emerging at a corner of the Haripur plain, turns north-west to join the Indus at Tarbela. Its total course is between 70 and 80 miles, and it irrigates 6,273 acres, 4,671 of which are in Mansehra tahsil, 143 in Abbottabad, and 1,459 in Haripur. It contains a very considerable volume of water, though, except in time of flood, it is fordable at many places.

The Dor.—The Dor contains much less water and has a shorter and more rapid course than the Siran, but commands more than double the area. It rises at the northern end of the Dunga Gali range, flows through the Haripur plain, and joins the Siran near the north-eastern end of the Gandgar range, 5 miles above Tarbela. Its length to the junction is about 40 miles, and on its way it irrigates 1,133 and 13,713 acres in the Abbottabad and Haripur tahsils respectively. In ordinary years the volume of water, which is increased by numerous springs in the river-bed, is ample for the irrigation purposes of many villages and adequate for the rest, but occasionally the supply is insufficient, and is altogether exhausted before the Siran is reached. Still, in any year there is a large stretch of irrigated land that is perfectly secure, and regularly produces rich crops of sugar-cane and turmeric, which mark the tract as one of exceptional fertility.

The Harroh.—The Harroh rises at the southern end of the Dunga Gali range, where it has two main branches—the eastern, known as the Dhund, and the western, known as the Karral Harroh, from the names of the tribes through whose country they flow. The two streams unite at the head of the Khanpur tract, and the river, after flowing for some distance through a deep gorge, debouches on the Khanpur Panjkatha, which has been mentioned above. The length of its course to the border of the Attock tahsil is between 40 and 50 miles, and it irrigates about 3,200 acres, most of which lie in the Panjkatha. The water-supply is usually adequate for the area irrigated within the District, though often insufficient for the villages of the Attock District immediately below.

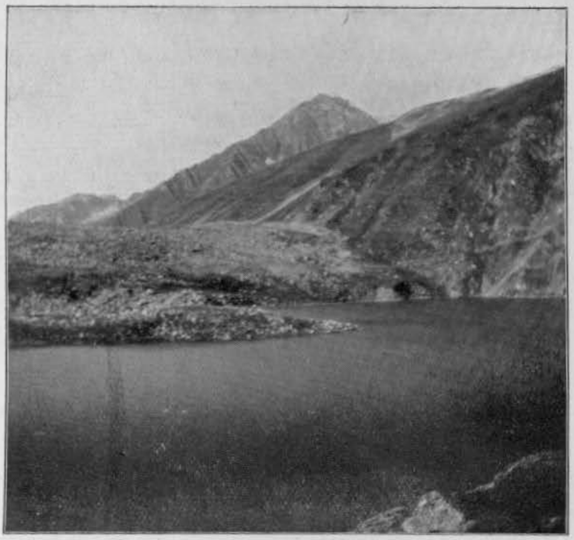
The Kunhar.—The Kunhar issues from the lake called Lulu Sar at the head of the Kagan valley, and after a generally turbulent course of about 110 miles joins the Jhelum at Pattan. It has an ample volume of water, but there is little level land upon its banks, and the

stream itself has either too rapid a current or too deep a channel to be utilized much for irrigation purposes.

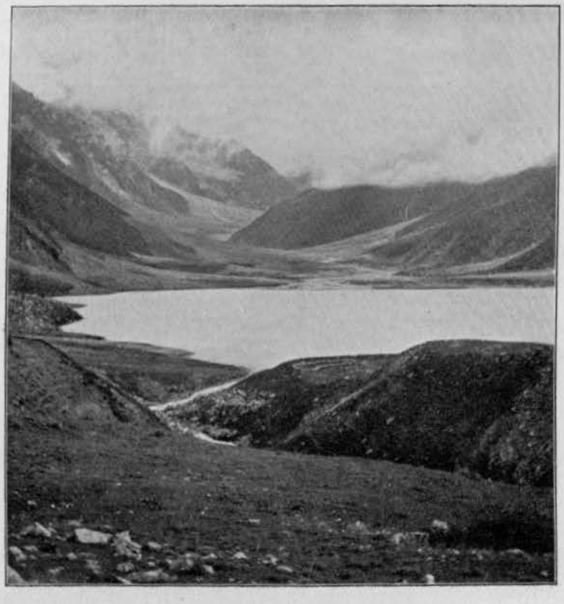
Minor Streams.—The rivers above mentioned have innumerable tributaries, some with a permanent flow, others with a scanty trickle from a spring in their bed, that, save in time of rain, is all used up for irrigation purposes at a short distance from its source. The irrigated area on these minor streams amounts to some 21,400 acres. They are known as *kathas*, as distinct from *kassis*, which are dry *nullahs* or ravines, converted into torrents only by heavy rainfall. In a hilly district like Hazara these latter are naturally very numerous, and the wide stony beds of many of them testify to the occasional violence of their floods.

Lakes and Tanks.—The lakes of the District are confined to the Kagan valley, and a description of them will be found in Chapter VIII. In the drier portions of the Haripur plain, and wherever water is scarce or distant, tanks have been constructed to catch the rainfall. In the first-named tract the large *bor* trees which grow on their edge are a conspicuous feature of the landscape.

Rainfall (Tables III., IV., and V.).—In a district of such varied characteristics, with its many alternations of hill and plain, vegetation and barrenness, dry soil and moist, a corresponding variety is bound to be exhibited in the rainfall. A continuous record of the fall has been kept at the head-quarters of the three tahsils, Haripur, Abbottabad, and Mansehra, and the annual average of the last twenty-two years is 30, 47, and 36 inches respectively. But within the limits of each tahsil there must be equally great variety. The southern portion of the Haripur plain, for instance, gets, as a rule, much less rain than Haripur itself, and the upper portion of the Khanpur tract gets much more. Similarly, in Abbottabad the Dor plain and the lower portion of Tanawal get less and the villages on the Dunga Gali range more than Rash. In fact, from



LULU SAR, SOUTHERN END.



ṢAFR MALUK SAR, LOOKING EAST.

the returns of a rain-gauge recently established at Dunga Gali it may be estimated that the average fall on that range (including snow) is between 60 and 70 inches in the year. In Mansehra the rainfall at the tahsil headquarters is less than at the northern end of the Pakhli plain, and than in the Agror, Konsh, and Bhogarmang valleys, as a rain-gauge recently erected at Oghi in Agror indicates. On the other hand, in Kagan the monsoon spends its force before it gets far up the valley, and the northern portion is generally almost rainless in the summer, though the snowfall in winter is very heavy.

About two-thirds of the rain fall in the hot weather months—April to September—and one-third in the cold weather months—October to March. July and August are the wettest months in the former season; January, February, and March in the latter. The advent of the monsoon rains is often delayed till the middle of July, but in the more elevated parts of the District, including Abbottabad itself, they are preceded by frequent thunderstorms in May and June, induced by the rising temperature in the plains, and taking the place of the dust-storms which afflict those less fortunate tracts.

Climate.—The climate naturally is very varied too. Round Haripur it resembles that of the Northern Punjab, though the hot weather sets in a little later and ends a little earlier, May and September being both fairly temperate months. The heat of the lower hills can also be very fierce. In the Rash and Pakhli plains the climate is cooler, and the hot weather is seldom very trying, but July and August can be unpleasantly muggy. The winter in these tracts is much more severe than down at Haripur. Frost is frequent (early in 1905 there was skating at Abbottabad), snow falls at times, and with this and frequent rain January and February are usually somewhat disagreeable months. But the delightfulness of the climate in the months that precede and follow them is ample compensation. The most elevated tracts

of the District are uninhabitable in winter, owing to snow and cold, but in the summer their coolness affords a grateful change from the sultriness of the plains below, and the bracing air of the hill-stations of Thandiani and the Galis in the Abbottabad tahsil enhances their natural beauties.

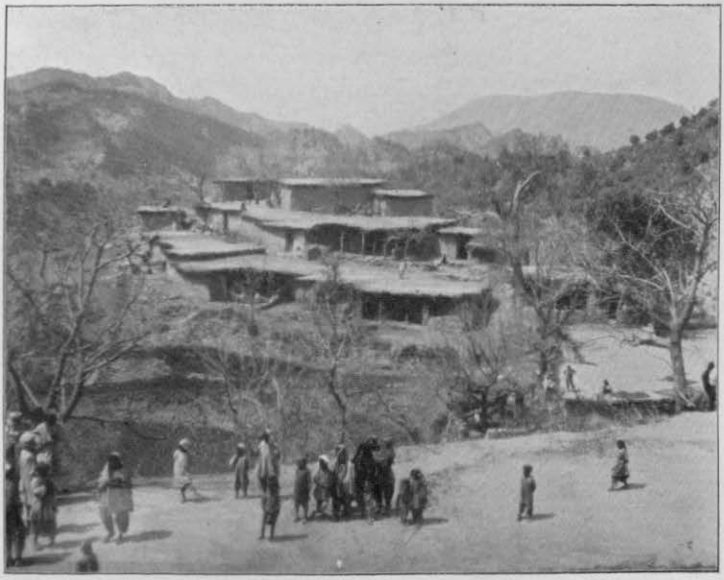
Scenery.—The climate and scenery are, indeed, the great attractions of Hazara, and there must be few Districts in India that can surpass it in this regard. A great charm of the scenery is its endless diversity. The well tract along the Indus, the small but richly watered plain of the Harroh, the still more fertile country round Haripur, and the flat, broad stretch of unirrigated land to the south and west thereof, recall features of the plains of the Punjab. The low and bare hills that fringe these level tracts have an attraction of their own, with their distant views of the wide-spreading plains and their invigorating air in the cold weather months; and the higher hills with their pine-covered slopes, the snow-capped peaks of Kagan, Bhogarmang and the regions beyond, the mountain torrents and waterfalls, the silent lakes, the villages perched on almost inaccessible heights or nestling in the valleys amid groves of trees, appeal strongly in their several ways to the lover of the sublime, the beautiful, or the picturesque, and afford a welcome contrast to the monotonous uniformity of less favoured Districts.

Geology.—The following account of the geology of Hazara is taken from a note by Mr. C. S. Middlemiss in the 'Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India,' vol. xxvi.:

'Hazara may be described geologically as a section of the earth's crust coming well within the area of Himalayan disturbance, although the trend of the hill-ranges is altered from north-west south-east to north-east south-west. It is divisible into four distinct zones or belts of formations separated from one another by faults with overthrust, and each zone exhibits more plication or



THE PAKHLI PLAIN, LOOKING NORTH FROM MANSEHRA.



DAKHAN PESAR, A PICTURESQUE HAZARA VILLAGE BETWEEN THE TWO HARROHS.

Gymnosporia (called *patáki*), the wild pomegranate (*daruni*), and the 'paper *Daphne*.'

As regards the lower hills, there can be little doubt that in former days, when the population of the District was less than it is now, many of those which are now dry and bare, except for a few stunted bushes and herbs, were covered with fine forests of the *chir* (*Pinus longifolia*). Remains of these forests are still to be seen, notably on the ridge which separates the Pakhli plain from the Kunhar valley, in Bhogarmang, Agror, and elsewhere. But the practice of burning the dry grass in summer, the annually increasing demands for timber and fuel, and the grazing of innumerable flocks of goats, have generally changed the aspect of the country. In such wooded tracts as still remain the prevailing tree is the *chir*, mingled with the ever-green oak, the wild fig, and the olive; while around the villages are orchards containing apricots, plums, peaches, pears, apples, and quinces. Almost every village has its *ziarat*, or shrine, with usually a grove of *Pistacia* (*kangar*) and *Celtis* (*batkarar*), and occasionally a fine specimen of the small-leaved elm (*mannu*). Of shrubs, the most notable are the *sanatha* (*Dodonæa viscosa*), the Venetian sumach (*Rhus cotinus*), the wild indigo, the barberry, and the musk-rose. Of herbaceous plants, the small yellow-flowered *colchicum*, which resembles a crocus, is the first to appear in early spring. As the green corn increases in height it is studded with pink and white tulips, and in certain parts of the Pakhli plain the rare and beautiful *Ixiolirion montanum* is plentiful. In shady spots there are dog-violets, and the bush-flax (*Reinwardtia*) spreads its yellow flowers in great profusion close to the ground, recalling the English primrose. Later on, in March and April, the pale pink Hazara lily (*Lilium roseum*) comes into bloom, and the graveyards are bright with blue and white iris and *Polyanthus narcissus*, both of which have been imported from Europe, probably through Persia and Afghanistan. During

the hot, dry months there are few flowers to be seen, but immediately the rainy season commences there is a striking change. The vegetation is now distinctly subtropical in character. In the maize-fields will be found the sky-blue convolvulus (*Ipomœa hederacea*), the pale yellow *Hibiscus*, and many others. As autumn advances the blue gentian (*G. Kurroo*) is common on steep grassy hill-sides.

To turn now to the forest tracts, the most conspicuous tree is the tall, slender *paludar* (*Abies Webbiana*), which grows to perfection on slopes with a northern aspect. Its sombre foliage is relieved by the bright green of the Himalayan horse-chestnut, the maple, the bird-cherry, and many others. There are several fine timber-trees, the most valuable being the *deodar* and the *biar*, or blue pine. The oaks are burned for charcoal, and almost every tree is turned to some purpose by the thrifty villager, the wood being used for building or for agricultural implements and various household utensils, and the foliage cut and stacked for fodder for use during the winter months. The best fodder-producing trees are the elm, the spindle-wood (*Euonymus fimbriatus*), the evergreen oak, the bird-cherry, and the chestnut. The foliage of the walnut is highly esteemed in Kagan, but is not much used in other parts of Hazara. The forest undergrowth consists chiefly of *guch* (*Viburnum fœtens*), with pale pink waxy blossoms appearing in early spring before the leaves, and the evergreen aromatic *Skimmia*, with bright red berries resembling those of holly. There are numerous herbaceous plants, of which the peony, the *Podophyllum*, and the violet are the first to come into bloom, followed by the columbine, the wild geranium, the blue *Strobilanthes*, and the balsam.

The vegetation of the Alpine tracts is generally similar to that which is to be met with throughout the higher Himalayan ranges. Above the coniferous trees there is the usual belt of silver birch, and higher still the dwarf

juniper. There are many beautiful flowering plants, among which the most conspicuous in spring are the gentians and anemones, with a dark blue *mertensia* and a purple *corudalis*. In summer there are aconites and forget-me-nots, the Swiss *Edelweiss*, and the Iceland poppy.

A detailed list of the more important or interesting trees, shrubs, and herbs is given in Appendix I., with their English and vernacular as well as their scientific names. The vernacular names have been verified as far as possible by inquiries in many different localities, and in several cases the Pashtu names used in Western Hazara have been given as well as those in ordinary use. The knowledge of trees and plants, more especially those of economic value, which is possessed by the agricultural population of Hazara is quite remarkable, and it is sometimes difficult to realize that these people have no acquaintance with scientific botany. The Gujars are especially well posted in the medicinal uses of plants, while the tribes of Pathan descent have a liking for bright and showy flowers.

Birds.—The birds of Hazara are also, as one would expect from the nature of the District, of great variety. With few exceptions, they are all more or less migratory, and the result is that even if an observer confines his attention to the neighbourhood of Abbottabad, he will see much diversity; for in the summer the hill birds retreat into their summer quarters, and their places are taken by those from the plains, while in winter, and especially a hard winter, a number of birds appear which would generally have to be sought high up in the hills. The peculiarity, however, of the birds of Hazara is to be found in the fact that one of the great lines of migration from India to Kashmir, where many birds spend the summer, and to Northern Siberia, the great breeding-place for birds from all Asia, and even from New Zealand, lies through the District. Many, too, go in a north-

westerly direction towards Europe. At the proper seasons almost all the species of Indian water-birds and waders pass either up or down. Large numbers of rooks, jackdaws, and starlings halt for the winter in the neighbourhood of Abbottabad, though many pass on into the plains. With the regular winter migrants from Europe or Siberia there are nearly always a few stragglers whose proper line of migration lies in other directions, but who have got mixed up with the great India stream of birds of this character. Thus the hooded crow, whose line of migration in winter is from the north-west towards the British Isles, is to be met with in Hazara occasionally, and the European roller, who from Europe should go south to Africa, gets mixed up with the birds who travel from Europe in a south-easterly direction, and appears as a stray visitor in these parts. If a man had leisure, he might probably find many such occasional visitants. Another feature, not, however, peculiar to the birds visiting Hazara, is that many migrants hurry through the District in the spring migration, and make a considerable halt there on their autumn travels. Thus the *Tillya* (*Jowári*, or mango-bird) is rarely seen when going north, but large flocks hang about the Abbottabad neighbourhood for weeks at a time on their return journey. Similarly, the little purple honeysucker and the bee-eaters are rarely seen in the spring, but a few make a halt on their way back. It would seem sometimes as if birds, like human travellers, vary their route, going north by one line, coming back by another. The wheat-eater, for instance, is one of the first birds to return, and makes a halt on the Thandiani hill for a few weeks, but it has never been recorded as seen there in the spring. A list of birds observed in the District will be found in Appendix II.

Game and Other Wild Animals.—Sport of a varied nature may be found in the District, but game is decidedly scarce. Big game are naturally confined to the more

remote forest-clad hills. A few ibex and red bear are to be found on the higher ridges of Kagan. Black bear are more numerous, and frequent all the hills over 7,000 feet in altitude, coming down to the cultivated lands for the sake of the ripening maize. Leopards are scarce, and the tigers that used to be found in the Gandgar and Khanpur hills have long disappeared. There are a few musk deer in the upper forests, and the Khanpur forests are the habitat of the *kakur*, or barking deer. The *rain*, or *gural* (Himalayan chamois), that is said to have been very common fifty years ago, is now very scarce, and the wild pig, that were also numerous in those days, have died out altogether. Of small game, the most prominent is the *chikor*, or hill partridge, which is to be found all over the District, but chiefly amongst the lower hills. A fair bag can generally be made near Baffa, in Tanawal or Badhnak, at the Sirikot end of the Gandgar range, in the Khanpur, Nara, and Lora tracts, and around Boi. Duck are found on the rivers, especially on the Siran, but not in great numbers. Snipe are not plentiful, but there are one or two small *jheels* on the Siran and elsewhere, where good bags may occasionally be obtained. Partridges of the black and grey varieties are scarce, being found only in the low hills, and that with difficulty. The upper forests contain a good number of various kinds of pheasants, including the *kuklás* and *manaul*, but they are difficult to find or get at. Quail are fairly abundant in the spring in the wheat and barley fields of the plain tracts; they appear again in the autumn in smaller numbers. Pigeons, both the blue rock and the ordinary wood-pigeon, are numerous, and generally to be found in the vicinity of cliffs overhanging streams or nullahs. The District used in the old days to swarm with hares, but few are left now. Jackals abound everywhere except in the higher hills. Foxes, hill martens, porcupines, mongooses, and burrowing rats, are more or less common all through the District, and flying squirrels are found in

the higher hills. Monkeys are numerous in the forests, and, like bears, do much damage to the ripening maize. To the marmots of Kagan a reference will be made in Chapter VIII.

Fishing.—The fishing of the District in the old days was excellent, and large bags of *mahsir* could be caught in the Siran and Harroh. A 60-pound fish was once landed at Thapla on the Siran, and Tarbela, at the junction of that river and the Indus, was a very noted fishing resort. In the Harroh the fish, though numerous, were smaller. But the netting, spearing, dynamiting, and setting of night-lines, in which the villages on the river-banks indulge, have ruined sport, and a *mahsir* of any size is rarely now landed by the rod. Fair bags of small fish can be made occasionally in the upper reaches of the Harroh. Snow-trout are found in the upper portion of the Kunhar and Siran rivers, but do not give any sport. English trout have been introduced into the Kalapani or Harnoi stream, on the road to Thandiani, and are doing well, the largest caught being close on 4 pounds in weight. Hopes are entertained that the experiment may succeed in other streams also.

Bees.—The keeping of bees in the hill tracts is very common. To start a hive a chamber about 4 cubic feet in size is made in the wall of a hut, generally on the south or south-east side, so as to face the sun, with a small entrance-hole, the edges of which are smeared with a mixture of honey and the pounded wood of the *chaura* plant, to attract a swarm. The honey is extracted in the months of September, October, or November, after smoking out the bees. The average yield of a hive is 15 seers, one-fifth of which is left for the bees' winter food. If not consumed at home, the honey is sold at rates of 3 or 4 seers to the rupee, and it is worth noting that there is a small village in the Boi tract which has been in the habit of paying its entire revenue to the assignee in this form. The honey is light in colour and

rather tasteless as compared with ordinary English honey. There are two kinds of bees, the large and the small. The small variety exists at higher elevations than the other, and makes better honey, with a reddish tint in it. Honey made by wild bees is also very common, and is gathered from the forests by the villagers if they have not been anticipated by the bears.

Earthquakes and Floods.—The District is comparatively immune from the convulsions of Nature. Earthquakes, though of not infrequent occurrence, have never been of a really alarming character. The greatest flood known is that of 1841 in the Indus, which swept away numerous villages on the river-bank and destroyed a large area of rich alluvial land. It is referred to again in Chapter V. Another severe, though not so disastrous, flood occurred a few years later. A more recent flood of a serious character was that of 1893 in the Kunhar and Jhelum, which swept away the Kohala Bridge and did much other damage.

CHAPTER II

THE PEOPLE

Population—Census Figures (Tables I. and VI.).—Exclusive of the Feudatory States of Upper Tanawal, which will be dealt with in a separate chapter, the population of the District at the various censuses is shown in the following table :

		Increase per Cent. on Previous Census.
Census of First Regular Settlement (1869-70)	343,929	—
,, of 1881	383,031	11
,, of 1891	483,903	26
,, of 1901	528,666	9

These figures must be taken with some reserve, for in so hilly a country, with its scattered homesteads and difficult communications, a very accurate census is an impossibility. That of 1901 was probably more correct than its forerunners, as owing to the presence of officials employed on the revision of the Settlement an extra staff was available for its supervision. But there can be no doubt that the population is increasing at a somewhat rapid rate. The conditions of life are healthy, large families are frequently to be met with, instances of longevity are not uncommon—there are several centenarians—and the standard of prosperity is fairly high.

Towns and Villages (Tables VI. and VII.).—The population is almost wholly rural. There are only four places

that can be dignified by the name of town—viz., Abbottabad, Nawanshahr, Haripur, and Baffa—and of these the last is more an overgrown village. They account for 5 per cent. of the people ; the rest are distributed among villages, that for revenue and administrative purposes number 914. But, as a matter of fact, one so-called village is often made up of several hamlets, and in the hill tracts disintegration has proceeded further still, many persons living in isolated homesteads built on their own lands. Indeed, in some cases the site to which the name of the village is applied is but a tiny cluster of huts with a mosque attached. In such circumstances there must inevitably be a weakening of the communal tie, and the control exercised by the headmen is often nominal only. Yet the tribal bond—for in most villages the great majority of the proprietors belong to one and the same tribe—remains strong, and the traditional dues and services leviable by persons of a superior from those of an inferior status, which are a relic of the troublous times when their relations were those of protector and protected, are another link of some importance.

Density (Table VI.).—The mean density of the population is 190 persons to the square mile. But so large a part of the District is a mountainous waste, uninhabitable in winter, that this figure conveys little. More instructive is the figure for the density per square mile of cultivation, which is 787. This is a high rate, and in some tracts like Lower Tanawal and Badhnak, the pressure on the soil is severe. But the large area of waste and the very considerable profits realized therefrom do much to relieve the strain.

Migration (Table VIII.).—From the migration statistics little is to be gleaned except that the large majority of the population is indigenous. About 21,000, or 4 per cent. of the persons enumerated in the District at the census of 1901 belonged to other Districts, and 22,000 of those enumerated elsewhere belonged to Hazara. Rawalpindi

contributed the greatest number of immigrants, and Kashmir of emigrants. In all cases males considerably outnumbered females.

Sex (Table X.).—Of the total population in 1901, the males numbered 281,704 and the females 246,962. The disproportion of the sexes is thus 6 per cent. in favour of the males. In 1891 it was 8 per cent., and in 1881 16 per cent. Female infanticide is not practised in the District, and the commonest explanation of these disproportions is that boys are better cared for than girls. But it would perhaps be rash to assume that the figures of the three decades indicate that any greater value is set on the lives of the weaker sex now than heretofore.

General Character of the People.—The Hazara peasant is somewhat lacking in robust qualities. He has not, as a rule, the manliness of the Peshawar Pathan, or the sturdy independence of the Punjabi Muhammadan of Rawalpindi and Jhelum. He is inclined to whine; he is a most fluent liar; he is addicted to factions and litigation, to the laying of false information, and the institution of fraudulent cases. Yet away from the atmosphere of the Courts and the neighbourhood of the petition writers he is by no means a bad fellow. Visit him in his village, and you will generally find him friendly and respectful. His wits are not bright, but he can enjoy a jest, and he is law-abiding and loyal. There is no organized crime in Hazara, and if an occasional murder or riot disturbs the peace it is but a temporary ebullition. Outside the towns there is practically no theft, and in many tracts the police have almost a sinecure. Nor is the Hazarawal altogether lacking in enterprise. *Res angusta domi* or an adventurous spirit drives many far afield. Numbers are to be found in Government or private service of every description, and from all parts of India and Burma, from China, from the Straits and Borneo, from Africa and Australia, letters and remittances come to gladden the folks at home.

Tribes notified as Agricultural under the Punjab Alienation Act (Table XV.).—The tribes of the District, who have been notified as agricultural under the Punjab Alienation Act, are the Awans, Bambas, Bibs, Dhunds, Dilazaks, Gakhars, Gujars, Karrals, Kureshis, Malliars, Mishwanis, Moghals, Pathans, Rajputs, Sararas, Swathis, Saiads, Tarins, Tanaolis, and Turks; but the Dilazaks and Tarins might have been included in the Pathans.

Of these tribes the Bibs and the Rajputs need not detain us. The Bibs are a small and humble tribe inhabiting one or two villages in the Abbottabad tahsil between the Rash plain and the Thandiani range. They are perhaps connected with the Awans, though the latter do not admit the relationship. The Rajputs, who number 4,082, are scattered about the District, generally as tenants, not proprietors, and probably include a number of persons who have no real claim to the title. The other tribes require longer notice.

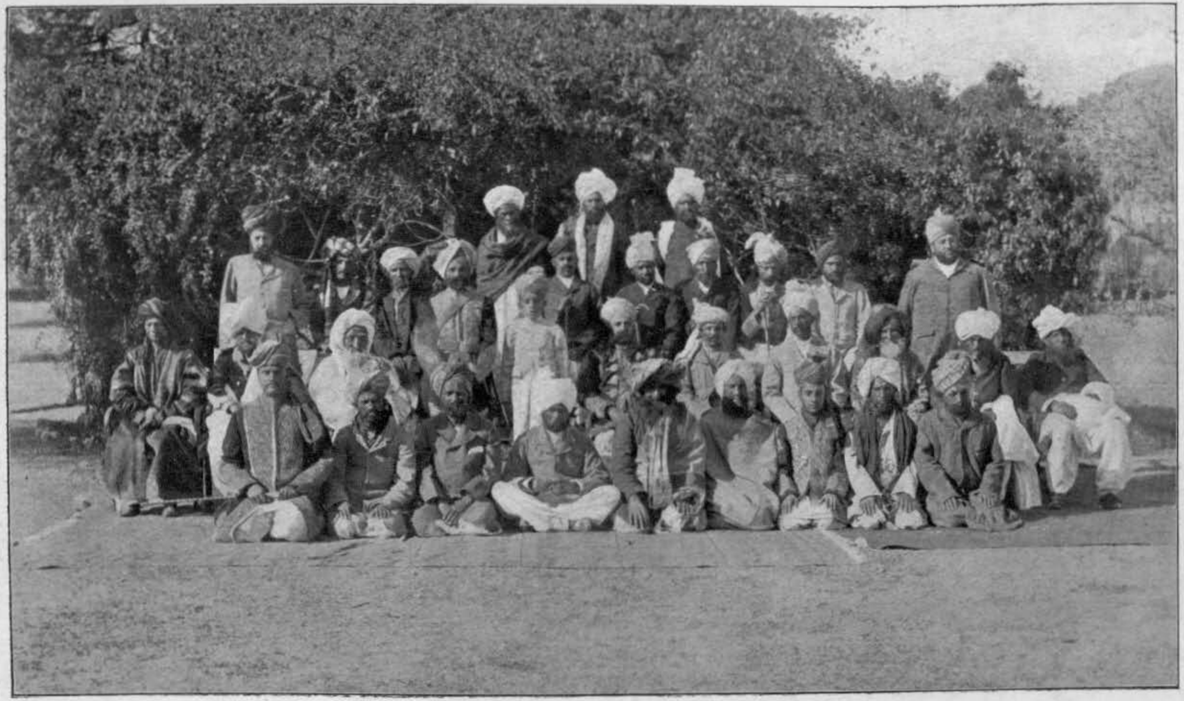
NOTE.—The following is an index to the group on the plate opposite, reading from left to right:

Standing at back: Shahzaman Khan, Jadun, of Dhamtaur; Najim Khan, son of Nadir Khan, Tarin, of Darwesh; Fazl Khan, son of Ahmad Khan, Pani, of Panian.

Next row (standing): Ali Bahadur Khan, brother of the late Khanizaman Khan, Said Khani Utmanzai, of Khalabat; Muhammad Khan, Tanaoli, of Kuthiala; Mukaddam Mir Abdullah, Gujar, of Kot Najibullah; Sultan Barkat Khan, Bamba, of Boi; Haidar Zaman Khan, son of the late Raja Jahandad Khan, Gakhar, of Khanpur; Ahmad Khan, Dilazak, of Serai Saleh; Kazi Fazl Ilahi, Golra Awan, of Sikandarpur; Muhammad Husain Khan, Swathi, of Mansehra; Kazi Abdullah Jan, Golra Awan, of Sikandarpur; Muzaffar Khan, Swathi, of Bhogarmang; Muhammad Sarwar Khan, Gakhar, of Khanpur.

Third row (seated on chairs): Hayat Khan, Tanaoli, of Sherwan; Said Muhammad Khan, Karral, of Dabran; Gulam Haidar Shah, Saiad, of Kawai; Muhammad Husain Khan, Swathi, of Garhi Habibullah Khan; Khanizaman Khan, Tanaoli, son of Nawab Sir Muhammad Akram Kkan, and now (1907) Khan of Amb; Sultan Muhammad Khan, Tanaoli, of Bir; Dost Muhammad Khan, Tanaoli, of Shingri; Fazl Shah, Kureshi, of Palasi; Satar Shah, Kureshi, of Palasi.

Fourth row (seated on the ground): Kashtasib Khan, son of Raja Sher Ahmad Khan, Gakhar, of Baghpur Dheri; Ahmad Khan, son of Muhammad Akbar Khan, Swathi, of Gidarpur; Ata Muhammad Khan, Dhund, of Lora; Resaldar Abdullah Khan, Tanaoli, of Chamhad; Mazulla Khan, Said Khani Utmanzai, of Dragri; Fakir Shah, Saiad, of Kagan; Munawar Shah, Saiad, of Kagan; Said Mahmud, Mishwani, of Sirikot; Ghazi Shah, Saiad, of Kagan.



A GROUP OF HAZARA CHIEFS AND NOTABLES (TAKEN TOWARDS THE END OF THE YEAR 1906).

Pathan Tribes—The Jaduns.—Of the genuine Pathan tribes the most numerous are the Jaduns, who occupy the Mangal tract, the Rash and Rajoia plains with the villages on their fringe, and Bagra and neighbouring villages at the eastern end of the Haripur plain. In the census of 1901 their numbers are given as 11,590. They are the same tribe as the Gaduns of the Yusafzai border, and, according to Raverty, 'are descended from Yzadun, son of Parnai, and brother of Kakar, the two latter being sons of Danai, son of Gurghusht, son of Kais-i-Abdur Rashid, entitled "the Patan."' They appear to have crossed the Indus into Hazara about the beginning of the seventeenth century, and taken possession of lands then belonging to the Turks and Dilazaks. The tribe is divided into three main sections—Hassanzais, Salars, and Mansurs. The first reside in Dhamtaur and the adjacent villages, and in the Mangal and Bagra tracts; the second in the Rajoia Plain; the third in Mangal, and in and round Nawanshahr. The Salars also lived in Mangal up to Sirdar Hari Singh's time (about A.D. 1830), but they were then evicted and confined to the Rajoia tract. The Mansur and Salar sections (but not the Hassanzais) keep up a slight connexion with the parent tribe trans-Indus, and a few of them can speak Pashtu. After they had obtained a footing in Hazara, the three clans took to electing one of their number to conduct their affairs and decide disputes. The arrangement, at first temporary in character, subsequently was made permanent, and the chiefship was attached to a Hassanzai family in Dhamtaur. At the time of the Sikhs' arrival in Hazara, Barkhurdar Khan was chosen as Khan of the tribe; he was succeeded by his son, Inayat Khan, who is represented to-day by his grandson, Shahzaman Khan. The chiefship has now ceased to exist, but Shahzaman Khan's is still regarded as the best family in the tribe. He holds a small *jagir* worth 100 rupees, an *inam* of 100 rupees, and is a District Darbari. The other most influential families are those

of the leading proprietors of Nawanshahr, Bagra, Banda Atai Khan (in the Rajoia plain), and Banda Pir Khan (in Mangal). Muhammad Akbar Khan, the representative of the last, holds the largest *jagir* assigned to any member of the tribe. It was earned by his grandfather Khudadad Khan, who rendered conspicuous services to Major Abbott. The tribe is a proud one, despising manual labour, and addicted, like most Pathans, to extravagance, faction, and litigation. But it contains a number of fine stalwart men, and is not devoid of the frankness and manliness that are also Pathan characteristics.

The Tarins.—The Tarins occupy a few villages in the Haripur plain to the west and south of Haripur. Raverty says they are descended from Tarin, son of Sarabarn, one of the sons of Kais-i-Abdur Rashid. They are therefore connected in origin with the Jaduns. According to their own account Tarin had three sons—Abdal Khan, Tor Khan, and Spin Khan. From the first the Sadozais and Duranis are descended; from the second and third the Tarins themselves. Those in the Haripur plain are Tor Tarins. There are a few Spin Tarins in Tarbela, and the rest are said to be in Peshin. Another section of the tribe residing in the Haripur plain are the Malkiars. The Tor Tarins say that they belong to some subsidiary branch, but they themselves affirm that Malik Yar was a brother of Tor and Spin Khan. The tribe now numbers 2,006 souls, if the census figures of 1901 are correct. They appear to have come to Hazara at the invitation of the Gujars, whom they gradually supplanted. The first of them to settle in the District is said to have been one Sher Khan. He was driven out of the Kandahar Province by its Governor, and about A.D. 1631 took service in India under the Emperor Shah Jahan, who gave him 200,000 rupees in cash, and permission to keep up a contingent of 1,000 horse. He also received a *jagir*, which was perhaps in the tract that the tribe now occupies. At any rate, the Tarins soon rose to be the most important

tribe in Lower Hazara. Towards the end of the eighteenth century their chief was Himmat Khan, and he was succeeded by his son Najibullah Khan, the founder of Kot Najibullah. But with the advent of the Sikhs their power began to wane. Being so close to Haripur they were brought at once into contact with their new rulers, and after an ineffectual struggle were forced to submit. But their chief, Muhammad Khan, was a troublesome customer, and not till the year 1825, when he died of poison administered by the direction of Sirdar Hari Singh, was the tribe really reduced to order. Gulam Khan, Muhammad Khan's son, was equally ill-fated. He deserted Major Abbott, and went over to the Duranis in 1848 ; was subsequently arrested by the British Government, and deported to Allahabad ; and in 1857 was hanged in the jail there for instigating an outbreak among the prisoners. His family, whose representatives live in his village of Nurdi Guldheri, has now little influence. The most prominent of the Tarins in the present day dwell at Darwesh, close to Haripur, but they, too, have fallen rather on evil times. There is too great a tendency among the tribe to harp on the glories of former days, and to refuse to adapt themselves to modern conditions, and there is a regrettable lack of men of worth and character.

The Dilazaks.—The Dilazaks are also a small tribe, numbering 2,534 souls. But in bygone days they were a very important one. They were driven out of Afghanistan in the time of the Emperors Babar and Humayun, and came and settled in Hazara and in the Chach tract of the present Attock tahsil. Their raids and depredations thereafter gave so much trouble that succeeding Emperors had them removed further into Hindustan, with the result that the strength of the tribe was completely broken, and its numbers were dispersed. The Hazara Dilazaks now occupy a few villages in the Haripur plain to the east of Haripur. Their head-quarters are Serai Saleh, and their

leading representative Ahmad Khan. The latter has only lately succeeded his father, Elahi Bakhsh Khan, who was a worthy and influential man. He has a *jagir* of 70 rupees and an *inam* of 150 rupees.

The Utmanzais.—The Utmanzais are a branch of the tribe of the same name who are located in Yusafzai and in Independent Territory trans-Indus, and they number 2,564 souls according to the latest census. They were invited across the river by the Gujars, who were being dispossessed by the Tanaolis, Tarins, and others, and they gradually acquired much of the Gujars' own territory. They are subdivided into Allazais, Akazais (who must be distinguished from the Black Mountain tribe of the same name), and Kanazais. Of these, the Allazais are the most numerous in Hazara, and are split up into three sections—the Tarkhelis, the Said Khanis, and the Khushal Khanis. The Tarkhelis will be described separately below. The rest of the Utmanzais occupy Tarbela and the villages at the tail end of the Dor irrigation, known as the Khalsa tract. The leading families belong to the Said Khani branch, the most important being that of Muhammad Aman Khan of Khalabat, who has a *jagir* worth 6,400 rupees. He is a retired *resaldar* of the 9th Cavalry, and has been made an Honorary Magistrate. His grandfather, Mirzaman Khan,* was the bravest and most loyal of all Major Abbott's following. On one occasion when the Sikh army had left Hazara, and only the garrison of Haripur fort remained, he obtained Major Abbott's permission to go and collect revenue in the villages round Haripur. While he was at Darwesh, the Sikhs sallied out

* Mirzaman Khan's father, Sadullah Khan, was also noted for his bravery. The family treasure among their heirlooms a tombstone which Major Abbott sent out from England to be placed on his grave, and which bears the following inscription: 'To the memory of Saadoollah Khan Syad Khani, Chief of Kullabutt, the heroic defender of Nara against three invasions of the Sikhs. He closed a life of persecution and suffering honoured and respected of all. Ob. 1852. A. Ae. 95. This stone is set up by his friend James Abbott." The stone is too precious to be erected on the grave and exposed to the risk of desecration or of deterioration from the weather.

against him 1,000 strong, whereupon he collected the 30 *sowars* who were with him, and, charging the enemy in the most gallant fashion, drove them pell-mell through the town back to the fort. Mirzaman Khan's son and successor was Khanizaman Khan, who died in 1906. Thoroughly loyal like his father, he was unfortunately careless and extravagant, and he left a heavily-encumbered estate, which Muhammad Aman Khan is trying to get into order again. Government has no stauncher friends in Hazara than the Khans of Khalabat, and the family deserves every consideration. The tribe is a well-behaved one on the whole, though inclined to be factious and unthrifty like other Pathans, and it provides the army with some excellent soldiers.

The Tarkhelis.—The Tarkhelis (whose name is a corruption of 'Tahir Khel') inhabit the Khari tract and the lower end of the Gandgar range. They have also several villages in the Attock tahsil. Though Utmanzais, they do not intermarry with the rest of the tribe, have a different character, and also some different customs. Thus the sons inherit *per capita* (*pagvand*), whereas among other Utmanzais of the District the general rule of inheritance is *per stirpes* (*chundavand*). And in character they are inferior. Idle and somewhat dissolute, they make bad landlords, and they are the worst revenue payers in the District, in spite of the fact that a large portion of their proprietary lands is held in *jagir*. Owning land, as many of them do, in several villages, some of which are in another Province, they are difficult to get hold of, and greatly tax the patience of the tahsil officials. In pre-annexation days they were given to robbery and every species of violent crime, as Chapter V. will show; but they are better conducted nowadays, and except for an occasional murder there is little crime among them. Nor are they devoid of intelligence. The chief of the tribe in Major Abbott's days was Khanizaman Khan of Kutehra, but he forfeited his position by disloyalty, and

his family is now of little account. One of the best families is that of Muhammad Khan of Kharbara, but he is unfortunately insane. Perhaps the most satisfactory members of the tribe are the Tarkhelis of Salam Khand, who served Major Abbott well, and are proud of the fact.

Other Pathan Tribes.—There are numerous other Pathan tribes in the District, but their numbers are small. Among them may be mentioned the Sulemanis, or more properly Shilmanis, who live mostly in the Khalsa tract and are closely connected with the Utmanzais, and the Panis, who occupy the village of Panian, 5 miles west of Haripur. The latter are a branch of the Kakar Pathans, and are a sturdy race, making excellent agriculturists. Their leading representative is Ahmad Khan, a very aged man, who remembers Durani days, and has done loyal service in his time. He has a *jagir* of 600 rupees and an *inam* of 150 rupees.

The Swathis.—The invasion of the Mansehra tahsil by the Swathis will be referred to in Chapter V. They number 34,989 according to the census, and occupy the greater portion of that tahsil. They claim to be Pathans, and to be connected with the Yusafzais, or rather with the Ranazais, from whom the Yusafzais are derived, and they produce a genealogical tree tracing their descent from Adam, and also from the same stock as Pathans generally. But there is little doubt that their claim is unsustainable ; as their name* implies, they are a people who once occupied the Swat valley, and their origin is probably of a heterogeneous character. They are divided† into two main sections—the Ghabri or Utli (Upper) Pakhli, and the Mamiali-Mitrawi or Tarli (Lower) Pakhli. The former occupy the Kagan, Balakot, Garhi Habibullah, Mansehra, Shinkiari, Bhogarmang, and Konsh tracts,

* Strictly speaking, the name should be spelt 'Swati' (in Pashtu 'Swatai'); but contact with Hindki-speaking tribes has led to the pronunciation of an aspirate after the 't,' and the common way of spelling is as in the text.

† For further details of the subdivisions of the tribe, the old Gazetteer, pp. 73, 74, may be consulted.

together with Nandihar and Thakot in Independent Territory; the latter reside in the Bhairkund and Agror tracts, and in Tikri and Daishi across the border. Allai is shared by both sections. The hereditary chief is Muhammad Husain Khan of Garhi Habibullah Khan, who belongs to the Khankhel subsection. The Khankhels, however, maintain that they are not Swathis, but Kureshis, which, if correct, is merely an instance of the heterogeneous origin of the tribe. The Khan is the biggest *jagirdar* in the District, the whole of Konsh and a portion of the Kunhar valley being assigned to him, and the total grant amounting to nearly 22,000 rupees. The present holder of the title is more or less of an invalid. Other prominent members of the tribe are Muhammad Akbar Khan of Gidarpur, Muhammad Husain Khan of Mansehra, Bara Khan of Konsh, and Muzaffar Khan of Bhogarmang. The exiled Khan of Agror is also a Swathi.

The Swathis are given a bad name in the old Gazetteer, being described as 'the reverse of warlike, deceitful, grasping, and lazy.' They resent these epithets, and they are perhaps a little too strong. Many Swathis are quarrelsome, litigious, and untruthful, oppressive landlords and indifferent cultivators; but this is not the universal rule, and the tribe has its good points. In intelligence they are superior to any tribe in the District, except possibly the Dhunds, and many of them are frank and pleasant to deal with. At present they are not enlisted in the army, and they are anxious for this bar to be removed; but their poor physique prevents compliance with their wishes.

The Mishwanis.—The Mishwanis number 3,992 souls, and inhabit the villages of Sirikot, Kundi, Amarkhana, and Gadwalian at the north-east end of the Gandgar range. There are some of them, mostly occupancy tenants, in adjacent villages also. They appear to be Saiads in origin, Mishwani, their progenitor, being one of the four sons of Saiad Muhammad-i-Gisu Daraz. He

is said to have married a daughter or granddaughter of Kakar, and to have been adopted by Danai, Kakar's father. His descendants consequently have some Kakar blood in them. Other Saiads, it should be remarked, do not admit the Mishwanis' Saiad origin, and do not intermarry with them. The tribe is as interesting a one as any in the District. They are a sturdy lot, industrious, well behaved, and more honest and truthful than most. With little land to spare at home a great number of them are in Government service, and their loyalty and courage are beyond question. They fought manfully against the Sikhs, with varying success, up to the year 1825, when Hari Singh evicted them from the country for five years, and Major Abbott found in them his staunchest supporters in 1848. 'One of the bravest races in the world,' he enthusiastically calls them. In their black garments, with their ancient matchlocks, swords, and targes, their tribal banner and their wild music, they are a picturesque sight as they crown the heights of Sirikot to greet their visitor, or make the hills resound with their mimic warfare. Of all the tribes in the District their history and their character appeal most to the Englishman. Their head is Said Sharif of Sirikot, who has a small *jagir*, and is a *jemadar* in the 62nd Punjabis. During his absence with his regiment the most influential member of the tribe is his uncle, Said Mahmud.*

The Tanaolis.—The Tanaolis are divided into two great sections, Hindwal and Pallal, of whom the former occupy Feudal or Upper Tanawal, and the latter Lower Tanawal, including Badhnak and a number of villages in the Garhian tract of the Mansehra tahsil. They number 58,700, of whom 19,100 are in Feudal Territory. The

* Like the Khans of Khalabat, this family keeps as a most valued heirloom a tombstone sent out by Major Abbott for the grave of Saleh Muhammad, great-grandfather of Said Sharif, and bearing the inscription: 'To the memory of Saleh Muhammad Mishwani Malik, of Srikot, a brave, upright, and patriotic man, one of the defenders of Srikot against many invasions. Ob. A.D. 1851. A. Ae. 85. This stone is inscribed by his friend James Abbott.'



A GROUP OF MISHWANIS, TAKEN AMID THE RUINS OF SIRIKOT FORT.

(In the foreground Said Mahmud holds the stone referred to in the note on the opposite page.)

tribe came from across the Indus, being pushed out of the Mahaban country by the Yusafzais, but their origin is uncertain. One genealogical tree shows them to be connected with the Janjuhas, but they themselves claim to be Moghals. They are split up into a large number of smaller sections, whose names all end in 'al.' The head of the Hindwals is the Khan of Amb; the leading clan among the Pallals is that of the Subakhanis, who are split up into three main branches, the descendants of Fatteh Sher Khan, Gul Sher Khan, and Sarfaraz Khan, sons of Suba Khan. The head-quarters of the first are in Phuhar, of the second in Bir, and of the third in Shingri. They are represented by three *jagirdars*—Ali Gauhar Khan, Sultan Muhammad Khan, and Dost Muhammad Khan. Sultan Muhammad Khan is a son-in-law of the late Nawab of Amb. He was educated at the Aitchison College, Lahore, and is an Honorary Magistrate. His *jagir* is worth about 2,400 rupees. Ali Gauhar Khan has only recently succeeded his father, Muhammad Khan, and has little to support him except his *jagir* of 530 rupees. Dost Muhammad Khan is an old man, the son of Nawab Khan, who was one of the most prominent chiefs in the District in Major Abbott's time. He has a *jagir* of over 3,600 rupees. The Tanaolis are industrious agriculturists. Most of them cultivate their own lands, and with many the struggle for existence, with bad soil and exiguous resources, is severe. Their moral character does not stand very high. In olden days their bad faith passed into a proverb, and they remain unblushing liars. Factions and quarrels about land and women are common, and they are inveterate litigants. But there is little serious crime, and they are a friendly, well-disposed people, not unattractive. A number of them are in the army, and make fair soldiers. Physically they are perhaps the best qualified of all the tribes in the District for such service.

The Turks.—The Turks are the descendants of the

Karlugh families settled in Hazara by Timurlane on his return from the invasion of India at the end of the fourteenth century. At one time they dominated the District, but gradually Pathan tribes and others evicted them from their possessions, and in A.D. 1786 we find their headmen appealing to Timur Shah, Durani, to reinstate them in Manakrai, the head-quarters of the clan near Haripur, from which the Ghurgusht Afghans had ousted them. Their prayer was granted, and Manakrai is still the chief Turk village in the District; but the glory of the tribe is departed, and in only a few other scattered villages in the three tahsils are their representatives to be found. At the census of 1901 they numbered 2,379 souls, and as in 1891 they numbered 3,821, they appear to be a dying race. They contain no man of any prominence, and exhibit a general lack of vitality.

The Awans.—The Awans are scattered about the District, and mixed up with other tribes in a bewildering fashion. They number 90,474 in all, and are usually a sturdy, well-behaved lot, and excellent agriculturists. Most of them are Kutabshahis; other leading sections are Khokhars and Chuhans. The most prominent family is that of the Qazis of Sikandarpur, who are Golra Kutabshahis. Their head is Kazi Fazl Ilahi, the grandson of Kazi Abdul Ghafur, who was Major Abbott's right-hand man. He has a *jagir* of over 2,000 rupees, and is a Municipal Commissioner of Haripur. Another leading member of the family is Kazi Abdullah Jan, Sub-Registrar of Haripur, whose father, Khan Sahib Kazi Mir Alam, was a well-known Extra-Assistant Commissioner, and, after his retirement, was made an Honorary Magistrate with first-class powers.

The Gujars.—The Gujars are among the oldest inhabitants of the District. They were in occupation of the Hazara plain before the Dilazaks, Utmanzais, and Tarins obtained a footing there, and in the hill tracts their tenure is no less ancient. They are the most numerous of all the



A GROUP OF UTMANZAIS (WITH SOME OF THEIR AWAN ALLIES FROM THE VILLAGE OF BAIL) IN FRONT OF THE NARA MONUMENT.

(Muhammad Husaim Khan, a younger brother of the Khan of Khalabat, is holding the stone referred to in the note opposite.)



KAGAN GUJARS.

these parts when the Gakhars invaded their country. They appear to have thrown off the Gakhars' yoke in the seventeenth century. There are two leading Karral families—those of the *jagirdars* of Diwal Manal and of Dabran. In Sikh times Hassan Ali Khan, the representative of the former, was chief of the tribe, and a man of great influence, but very untrustworthy. In 1857 he nearly joined the Dhunds in their attack on Murree, but was dissuaded by other members of his family. He was succeeded by his son, Azad Khan, who died in 1901. The latter's eldest son, Rahmatullah, had but a brief enjoyment of the *jagir*, for in November, 1905, he was killed by his cousins in a family quarrel. He left no son, and as no suitable successor was in evidence, and the family was rent by dissensions and ruined by extravagance, Government decided to suspend the *jagir* (over 1,400 rupees in value) for five years, in the hope that by that time some member of it might have proved himself fit to occupy the position. The representative of the Dabran family is Said Muhammad Khan, whose *jagir* is worth 850 rupees. Here, too, we have unhappy dissensions between the *jagirdar* and his relatives, the factions in Dabran being as bitter as anywhere in the District. Indeed, the character of the Karral is not a very attractive one. He is intriguing and quarrelsome, and has more than his share of craft and cunning. But these remarks apply chiefly to the more prominent families ; the poorer and humbler members of the tribe in the Boi tract and elsewhere are quite inoffensive people, attached to their homes, and industrious cultivators.

The Dhunds.—The Dhunds are also believed to be converted Hindus in origin. But they say that they are Kureshis. Like the Karrals, they were for a time subservient to the Gakhars. They occupy the Bakot tract between the Dunga Gali range and the Jhelum, and the country on either side of the eastern or Dhund branch of the Harroh before its junction with the Karral branch.

They also extend across the border to the hills round Murree. The members of the tribe residing inside the District number about 25,231. They are a democratic lot with no hereditary chief, each man thinking himself as good as his neighbour. Perhaps the best families are in the villages of Bakot and Majuhan. In character they are addicted to duplicity and intrigue, and some villages are notorious for faction, for the institution of false cases, and for perjury. But they are intelligent and astute, proximity to Murree and the Galis having sharpened their wits, as well as increased their prosperity. Physically they are rather a fine race, and they include among their number the tallest men of the District. They are well behaved as a rule, and the taint of disloyalty which attaches to the Murree Dhunds for their conduct in 1857 can hardly be said to attach to the Hazara branch of the tribe. No doubt a certain number of them joined in the rising, but the leading men held aloof, and it was a Dhund of Lora who informed the authorities at Murree of the intended attack. The most prominent men are Ata Muhammad Khan of Lora, son of the Dhund just mentioned, Mehrdi Khan of Dheri Kiala, Husain Khan of Kalaban, Kutab Din of Majuhan, and Dost Muhammad Khan of Bakot, whose father Hassan Khan rendered loyal service to Government from the days of the Mutiny onwards.

The Sararas.—The Sararas appear to be connected with the Dhunds, with whom they intermarry. But they say they came from Pakpattan in the Montgomery District. It is possible that, like the Dhunds and Karrals, they may be Hindus in origin. It is noticeable that with all three tribes the names of the subsections terminate in 'ál,' like those of the Tanaolis. Whether this is an indication of an Hindu ancestry may be doubtful, but it is curious that the Sararas have a tradition that they are connected with the Tanaolis as well as with the Dhunds. They number 7,332 souls, and live almost exclusively in

the Boi tract between the Thandiani range and the Kunhar river. They are a very humble people, poor and industrious, burdened with large families, and disinclined to leave their homes. There is no man of light and leading among them.

The Bambas.—The Bambas are an important tribe in Kashmir, but in Hazara they are practically confined to two families—those of the Boi *jagirdar* and of the proprietor of Jabri Kalish, a village in the Kunhar valley. The former, Sultan Barkat Khan, is one of the biggest men in the District, and his *jagir* of 35 villages is worth over 7,000 rupees. But his ancestors were bigger men still, being chiefs of the Muzaffarabad *ilaqa* in Kashmir to the east of the Kunhar, as well as of the Boi tract, until Maharajah Gulab Singh took the former from them.

The Moghals.—The Moghals number 8,311, and are scattered about the District. But it may be doubted whether the majority have any real title to be so called. Persons of low but doubtful origin, who wish to attain a more dignified status, usually assert that they are Moghals, and the introduction of the Punjab Land Alienation Act has given a great stimulus to this tendency. Even an admittedly agricultural tribe like the Malliars seems ashamed of its name, and essays to substitute Moghal in its place.

The Malliars.—The Malliars are recorded as numbering 7,770. For the reason just noted there are probably more of them in reality. As the name indicates (*mali*, a gardener), they are usually cultivators of fruit or vegetable gardens, or of valuable crops like sugar-cane and turmeric, that require special attention and labour. They are the best agriculturists of the plain tracts—most of them live in the Haripur plain—and are a sturdy, thrifty lot. But comparatively few of them are landowners, and their social status is inferior to that of most of the other tribes, who consider it derogatory to be mere gardeners.

The Gakhars.—Of all the tribes of the District, none have such proud traditions as the Gakhars. Their late chief, Raja Jahandad Khan, who made an exhaustive study of the authorities on the history of the tribe, traced their descent from Nausherwan, King of Iran, and his grandson Yazdgurd, Kiani, said to be an ancestor of Mahmud of Ghazni. According to the Raja, Yazdgurd's son, Firoz Shah, went to China in the seventh century A.D., was made commander of the Emperor's Bodyguard, and given Tibet to rule over. In the ninth century, having been converted to Muhammadanism, his descendants left Tibet for Kabul. After remaining there 200 years, they moved to Ghazni. They came to India about A.D. 1,000 with Mahmud of Ghazni, who made the Sind Sagar Doab over to them. They returned to Ghazni with Mahmud, but continued to take tribute from the conquered territory. On the break-up of Mahmud's dynasty the Kashmiris took possession of the Doab, but in the fifteenth century Malik Kad Gakhar recovered it from them.

This much is tradition only, but we now come to historical facts. In A.D. 1519 the Emperor Babar came into contact with the tribe, and found them ruled by two chiefs who were cousins, and named Tatar and Hati respectively. While the Emperor was in their country, Hati attacked Tatar, killed him, and took possession of his territory. Babar's force thereupon marched against Hati, and captured his stronghold. Hati fled, but afterwards made his submission. In Akbar's time, according to the 'Ain-ul-Akbari,' the Gakhar chiefs were Sultan Sarang and his brother Adam. The tribe was a powerful one, and had spread widely over the Sind Sagar Doab. The daughter of Said Khan, son of Sultan Sarang, was married by Akbar to his son and future successor, Jahangir. From Sultan Sarang, the Sarangal branch of the tribe, and from Sultan Adam, who succeeded his brother in the chiefship, the Admal branch are descended. The Sarangals are found in the Hazara and

Rawalpindi, and the Admals in the Rawalpindi and Jhelum Districts.

The Hazara Gakhars are descended from Fateh Khan, son of Sultan Said Khan, who founded Khanpur about the end of the sixteenth century. The tract made over to him by his grandfather, Sultan Sarang Khan, included the Karral and Dhund hills, as well as those of Khanpur, but during the decline of the Moghal dynasty the Karrals and Dhunds, as above stated, managed to assert their independence. Under the Durani rule the Gakhars of Hazara were entrusted with the task of keeping order in the lower portions of the District, and received large allowances for military services rendered. Their most notable chief in these times was Sultan Jafar Khan, who died in 1801. He had a great reputation for honesty and uprightness. Under the Sikhs the tribe fell on evil days. Evicted by Sirdar Hari Singh from their estates, they did not recover full possession of them till the First Regular Settlement (A.D. 1868-1873), when, after an exhaustive inquiry, they were reinstated as proprietors of almost the whole of the Khanpur tract.*

* Raja Jahandad Khan was at great pains to show from the works of various ancient historians that the account of the tribe given in Griffin's 'Punjab Chiefs' (*vide* the Gakhars of the Rawalpindi District) was misleading, though he admitted that the story of their having conquered Kashmir was a fable; and I think it must be conceded that he proved his point. The fact is that the early history of the Gakhars was confused with that of the Khokhars through a misunderstanding of a passage in the historian Ferishta, who records that 30,000 of the latter tribe penetrated Mahmud of Ghazni's camp, and were with difficulty repulsed after Mahmud had lost 5,000 men. Ferishta's translators mistook Khokhar for Gakhar (the words are very much alike in the vernacular), and hence all the subsequent blunders. It is the Khokhars, not the Gakhars, whom Ferishta speaks of as 'savage barbarians among whom prevailed female infanticide and polyandry,' and they were Khokhars, not Gakhars, who assassinated Muhammad Ghori in 1206. Raverty, in his 'Ethnographical Notes,' also points out this mistake, but in his anxiety to prove that all the modern historians are wrong, and that undue prominence has been given to the Gakhars, he perhaps unduly depreciates the position and strength of the tribe in Moghal times. That their chiefs must have been men of mark is shown by their alliance with the Emperor's family and by the account of the numbers and resources of the tribe in the 'Ain-ul-Akbari.' Again, the statement in Griffin's 'Punjab Chiefs' that Said

The tribe numbers 4,445 by the census of 1901. There are two leading families, of which the senior is represented by Raja Ali Haidar Khan, son of Raja Jahandad Khan, and the younger by Raja Sher Ahmad Khan. The former is the titular chief of the Gakhars. He is a minor, and his estate is under the Court of Wards. His *jagir*, excluding a life *jagir* of 1,000 rupees enjoyed by his father, is worth 1,700 rupees. Raja Jahandad Khan, Khan Bahadur and C.I.E., who died in 1906, was a retired Extra-Assistant Commissioner, and one of the leading Muhammadans in Northern India. He was a loyal servant of Government, and had rendered distinguished service in the Afghan War, and, later, as head of the mission sent to congratulate Amir Habibullah Khan on his succession. Raja Sher Ahmad Khan, who resides at Baghpur Dheri, 10 miles to the east of Khanpur, is also a man of character and influence, but suffers from constant ill-health. His *jagir* is worth 5,000 rupees. As a tribe the Gakhars are a fine manly race, not over-energetic or industrious, but well disposed and well behaved. A good number are in Government service, and make excellent soldiers.

Saiads.—The Saiads of the District number 22,696, and belong to the Bukhari, Tarimzai, Mashadi, Bakri, and Gilani sections. They are scattered all over the country, and are for the most part a lazy, thriftless lot, making the poorest of agriculturists, and generally leaving it to others to work for them. Yet there are villages in which, under pressure of necessity, they have developed into excellent

Khan was the third son of Sultan Sarang appears to be incorrect. Raja Jahandad Khan had a pedigree table which showed him to be the eldest son, and the fact that it was his daughter whom Akbar selected for Jahangir seems to bear this out. As Sultan Sarang was also the elder brother of Sultan Adam, who succeeded him in the chiefship (though I have seen a printed pedigree table which makes him out to be the younger), the Hazara Gakhars may be regarded as representing the senior branch of the tribe. It may be added that the title of Raja is not an indication, as some might think, of Hindu descent, but appears to have been assigned to the Gakhar chiefs by the Sikhs. Previously they were called 'Sultan,' and Raja Jahandad Khan was anxious that the latter title should be revived.

cultivators, and there are several men of prominence and worth among them. The Saiads of the Kagan valley stand somewhat apart from the rest. Descendants of Jalal Baba, who led the Swathi invasion into Hazara, they for long remained virtually independent masters of the upper end of the glen, and it required an expedition in the year 1852 to enforce their complete submission. They now vegetate in that northernmost corner of British India, seeing little of the outer world, rearing large families, lording it over their tenants, and leading generally an idle, profitless life. But they are well behaved; a few of them display intelligence and spirit, and they are all waking up a little under the increased attention that their valley is receiving. Their chief titular representative is the *jagirdar* Munawar Shah, who is but just come of age. His *jagir*, apart from his share in the assignment of one-third of the revenue enjoyed by the proprietors of Kagan village, is worth nearly 1,700 rupees. His father, Afsar Ali Shah, was a man of capacity and intelligence. Ghazi Shah, *lambardar* of Kagan, a man of some energy, now takes the lead. But most worthy of note is Gulam Haidar Shah of Kawai, a very old man, whose father, Zamin Shah, was the ringleader of the discontented members of the tribe in 1852. Of the other Saiads of the District, Umran Shah, of Phagla in the Mansehra tahsil, is a man of worth, universally respected.

Kureshis.—The Kureshis (or 'Qureshis') of the District were shown separately for the first time in the Census Returns of 1901, and numbered 3,135 souls. The most notable among them are the Pirs of Palasi, near Lora. These latter have considerable religious sanctity, and in former times had much influence, and used to head the Dhunds in their rebellions. There are three branches of the family, whose representatives, Fazl Shah, Satar Shah, and Sadik Shah, have equal shares in a *jagir* worth 1,000 rupees. With little vigour or enterprise, they are respectable and inoffensive people.

Hindus and Brahmins.—The main classes of Hindus in the District are Brahmins, Khatris, and Aroras. The Brahmins number 5,032; they are of the Sarsut branch, and are divided into Mohyals and Bunjais. The former consider themselves superior, and do not give their daughters in marriage to the latter. And their former practice of marrying Bunjai women is said now to have ceased. The hill Brahmins are a class apart. They are Bunjais, but do not intermarry with the Brahmins of the plains. The latter do not admit that they are pure Brahmins, as they allow widow remarriage, do not keep *parohits*, and are agriculturists by profession. They are, in fact, about the best cultivators in the hills. Most of them are found in the Nara and Lora tracts. They are usually Sikhs, and observe Sikh customs.

Khatris and Arorás.—The Khatris of the District are divided into Khukhrans, Bunjais, and Multanis (or Bahris). The most influential men are found among the Sánis and Kholis, branches of the Khukhrans. At last Census the Khatris numbered 12,790. The Aroras, who number 3,806, belong to the Dara and Utarahdi sections.

Religion.—The District is essentially a Muhammadan one, 95 per cent. of the total population being of this persuasion. Almost all are Sunnis. There are no Shiahs to speak of, but there are a few Wahabis among the Karrals in Bagan and elsewhere. The latter are descendants of the converts of one Maulvi Muhammad Kasim, who visited the Karral country in 1845. But most of the leading families who were gained over by him have now abjured his doctrines. The new sect of Ahmadiyas, who follow the teaching of Gulam Ahmad of Qadian, has also a certain vogue, especially in the Mansehra tahsil. As a rule, the Muhammadans of Hazara are fairly devout, and the mullahs have great influence. Holy men are treated with much respect, and the District is full of shrines.

Four per cent. of the population are Hindus. They are made up chiefly of traders and shopkeepers, the Brahmin

agriculturists of the hills and the Gurkha regiments of Abbottabad. Except the last they are usually either Vaishnavis or Shevis (followers of Vaishna or Shiva), the latter being more common. In Abbottabad itself there is a branch of the Arya Samaj, which has a good number of adherents.

Among the Hindus the Sikhs are not included. These number 4,036, or less than 1 per cent. of the population, and are most of them Brahmins in origin. Few belong to the straitest sect of the Khalsa, but are Sanatan Sikhs, mostly Shevis, upholding the ties of caste and the privileges of Brahminism. A number, like those in the Lora tract, have not taken the *pahal*. The Christians are in the main confined to the small European community at Abbottabad.

Missionary Work.—Missionaries of the Church Missionary Society have been occasionally stationed at Abbottabad, but beyond prospecting little regular work has been done. No schools have been opened, and no hospitals built. But there have been converts from almost all parts of the District, some as a result of the little preaching that has been carried on in these parts, and some who have heard the Gospel while seeking work in other parts of India. One feature that struck an experienced missionary prospector was that in many parts of the District, even in out-of-the-way places, he met men, often mullahs, who were possessors and diligent readers of the Bible.

Language—Hindki.—The language talked by the great majority of the people is called 'Hindki' or 'Hindko.' It is a branch of the Punjab dialect variously termed Multani, Jatki, Lahndi, or Western Punjabi. This dialect has considerable affinities with Gujerati, and is spoken in the Bahawalpur State, in the Multan and Muzaffargarh Districts, over large tracts of the Derajat, and in parts of Peshawar, where it is known as Peshawari. In the Salt range and the Shahpur District one meets it,

but with some curious variations, and from Hazara it passes on into Kashmir, and has left some traces on the language of that country. Of course the varieties are great, as everywhere it comes into close touch with other languages, such as Biluchi, Sindhi, Eastern Punjabi, and Pashtu, and it has borrowed from these tongues or been corrupted by its close intercourse with them. It has many affinities with Sindhi, but the differences are sufficient to show that the one has not been derived from the other, but that both come from a common root.

The main divergencies between the Hazara dialect and the Western Punjabi of down country are the following : (1) The pronunciation has not the marked nasal twang that it has down country ; (2) the inflexions in many cases follow ordinary Punjabi ; (3) the formation of the future by inserting an 's' between the root and the inflection is almost universal, as in Multan and not in the Punjab proper, but the use of pronominal inflexions at the end of verbs is not quite so common, and is generally confined to the third person, singular and plural ; (4) the passive voice is met with more frequently than in the Punjab, but less frequently than in Multan ; (5) the words in use are generally the same as in Multan, but others not known there are also common, and in the Jhelum valley one may find words that are in use in Sindhi, but not in the Multan dialect. But such differences as there are are far less than those between English as spoken in Somersetshire and Yorkshire.

Pashtu.—Pashtu is habitually spoken among themselves by the Mishwanis, by the residents of the Agror and Konsh valleys, and by the villages on the western fringe of the Pakhli plain. The Utmanzais of Tarbela and Khalsa, the Tarkhelis, and many villages in Pakhli outside the fringe above mentioned, can also talk it. It is the ordinary hard Pashtu of the Peshawar border. There are very few of its speakers who cannot also talk Hindki with more or less fluency.

Gojri.—The Gujars of the hills have a language peculiar to themselves and their fellow-tribesmen in neighbouring tracts, called Gojri. Their attempts to talk Hindki result often in a weird and somewhat unintelligible mixture of the two dialects.

Vital Statistics (Tables XI., XII., and XIII.).—According to the official statistics, the average birth and death rates per 1,000 for the six years ending 1906 are 32·5 and 24·7 respectively. But, unfortunately, these statistics are based on erroneous totals, in which the population of certain tracts, where no system of registration is in force, has been included. If we exclude these tracts, the more correct figures would appear to be 38·2 and 29, but these also must be accepted with considerable reserve, as in a District of this character accurate and regular registration is an impossibility. In particular the registration of female births is much neglected. As they stand both the rates are somewhat below the average of the North-West Frontier Province. It would be unsafe to draw any inferences from this fact, but from general observation it may be said with confidence that the District is more healthy than most, and that the people are fairly prolific.

Diseases and Infirmities (Table XIV.).—The chief malady from which the District suffers is malarial fever. This is worst in the damp plains of Pakhli and Haripur, but when the summer rains are abnormally heavy and the maize crop exceptionally high, as was the case in 1906, it is very prevalent everywhere. Eye diseases, stone in the bladder, and, during the winter, affections of the respiratory system, are also common. From serious epidemics of anything but fever the District during the last thirty years has fortunately been almost immune. Cholera occasionally makes its appearance in one tract or another, and sweeps off a few hundred victims; small-pox lurks in the valleys, and now and then breaks out with some virulence; but plague has hitherto been merciful.

There have been several imported cases, and one or two sporadic outbreaks, but from its introduction into India up to the end of 1906 only ninety-two deaths in all had been registered as due to this cause.

At the Census of 1901, 1,328 persons were returned as 'afflicted,' or 24 per each 10,000 of the population. Of these, 167 were insane, 575 were deaf-mutes, 405 were blind, and 181 were lepers. There is a colony of the last at Balakot, where the shrine of Bala Pir is supposed to be of special efficacy in curing this disease. Many of them come from across the border, but in one or two villages of the Boi tract the disease appears to be endemic.

Social Conditions—The Women.—The women of Hazara have their fair share of good looks in their younger days, though they do not come up to the Kashmiris. The best looking are said to be found among the Swathis, Tarins, Utmanzais, and Kagan Saiads. Their morals are not of a very high standard, and civil and criminal cases, of which they form the subject, are frequent. The Swathis and Tanaolis are perhaps the worst offenders, and the Gujar women are the straightest. Those of the plain tracts in the south of the District are better treated than those in the hills. In the plains they are principally employed in household duties, spinning thread and making clothes, and they do not work in the fields except at gathering cotton, picking the cobs off the maize-stalks after reaping, and separating the grain from the rest of the cob. In the hills they also tend the cattle, cut grass, and help the men in every operation of husbandry except ploughing and sowing. The Tanaoli women carry loads of wood and grass to sell in the nearest bazaar, and are well able to hold their own in such transactions.

Polygamy.—Polygamy is not uncommon among those who are better off or of higher social standing than their neighbours. It is most frequently found among the Swathis, Tarkhelis, Tanaolis, Jaduns, Dhunds, and the leading Karrals, where the possession of three or four

wives at a time is not unusual. The Swathis and the chief Tanaoli families are the most married of all.

Betrothal and Marriage Ceremonies.—Infant betrothals and marriages are comparatively rare. The usual age for betrothals is from nine to twenty years in the case of both parties, and for marriages from eighteen to twenty-five for the man, and from fourteen to twenty for the woman. The betrothal ceremony is a very important one, and is commonly referred to as *nikah*, though this term, strictly speaking, is applicable to the marriage ceremony only. The formalities vary considerably. But in all cases, after the preliminary negotiations have been completed, they start with a visit of a party representing the relatives and friends of the bridegroom to the bride's father's or guardian's house. Presents in money, clothes, or jewellery are given to the latter, being in the case of some tribes, like the Tanaolis, Dhunds, Sararas, and Karrals, placed in a large brass platter, called a *thál*, which is brought forward by the barber. A mullah is then sometimes called in, and the ceremony of *ijáb kabúl* or *shara jawáb* is performed, the fact of the betrothal being successively attested in a loud voice by the fathers or guardians of the bride and bridegroom. This latter ceremony appears to be becoming more and more frequent. It gives to the betrothal an exceptionally binding force, and the couple for whom it has been performed are considered to be as good as married. But the marriage ceremony or *nikah*, has to take place before the bride and bridegroom can see each other or their union can be consummated. This ceremony is usually held at the house of the bride's parents or guardian, and on its completion the marriage procession escorts the couple back to the bridegroom's house. But among the Jaduns and other Pathan tribes the *nikah* is often read at the bridegroom's house.

Burial Customs.—Funeral ceremonies are an important feature in the life of the people, and are the occasion for

the most extravagant expenditure. Immediately after the burial alms are distributed, one-fourth being given to the *imam* and three-fourths to the poor, and three days later the relatives and friends of the deceased are entertained at a feast of rice, *ghi*, and other luxuries. The poorest will spend at least 20 rupees on such an entertainment, and families of high standing will spend a thousand or more. Indeed, the expenditure attendant on funerals is one of the main causes of the indebtedness so prevalent in the District, and in the face of public opinion and what is often a dying behest it is difficult to cut it down.

The cemeteries of Hazara add to the attractions of the scenery. For the people have the pretty custom of planting irises on the graves, and in the spring these are a blaze of blue and white flowers. In some of the less elevated tracts the jonquil takes the place of the iris. Another custom that is worth noting is that of distinguishing between the graves of the two sexes by placing a man's tombstones lengthwise—*i.e.*, with their edges pointing along the grave—and a woman's tombstones crosswise. But this practice is now dying out, and the tendency is to put all tombstones lengthways.

Food.—The common food of the people is maize, the staple crop. In parts of the Haripur tahsil its place is largely taken by *bajra*. Rice is eaten in the tracts where it is grown. Barley is consumed chiefly in the low hill tracts like Tanawal and Badhnak, and by the poorer classes. Of the well-to-do classes wheat is the favourite grain. *Dal* is made from the various pulses grown in the District, but *kulath*, or horsegram, the commonest pulse of all, is eaten by the poorest only, and then generally mixed with maize. Milk and butter-milk are consumed to a certain extent, but most of the milk is converted into butter or *ghi*, and sold. *Ghi* is only consumed by the poorer classes on festive or ceremonial occasions. In the higher hills pumpkins and honey are added to the food

resources of the population. Meat, except among the wealthiest classes, is only an occasional luxury.

With a Muhammadan population like that of Hazara wine-drinking is, of course, not customary, but in one or two leading families the habit has been indulged in and carried to excess. Opium-eating is common among the Hindus, and is not infrequent with the Muhammadans, among whom the Saiads of Kagan and the Swathis of Bhogarmang practise it most.

In the cold weather two, and in the hot weather three, meals are ordinarily taken, but men labouring in the fields usually have an extra one. In the hot weather the first meal, called *again*, is eaten at 7 or 8 a.m. Next comes *roti*, between 11 and 12. At 4 p.m. may come the extra meal, which is called *pichhain*, and after sunset the evening *roti* is eaten. In the cold weather the morning *roti*, at 9 or 10 a.m., is the first meal.

Dress.—The people for the most part wear clothes of coarse texture, and either white, black, or indigo blue in colour. The well-to-do and the residents in the plains favour white, the Mishwanis and some Tanaolis black; other residents of the hills blue. The cloth is often of English make. In the northern valleys *pattu* clothes of a dirty grey or brown tint are commonly worn. The principal articles of a man's dress are loose drawers (*suthan*), a long tunic opening in front (*khilka*, or *anga*, if it is of *pattu*), or a shirt (*perni*)—sometimes the two together—and a turban (*patka* or *pagri*). In the hot weather a sheet (*chádar*), in the cold weather a blanket (*shári*) is thrown round the shoulders. The women wear a long shirt (*khilka* or *perni*), generally embroidered in front, loose drawers (*suthan*) arranged in pleats which are gathered in at the ankle, and a sheet (*chádar*), which serves both for veil and head-dress. In the hills a tight-fitting skull-cap, either blue or red, is frequently worn in place of the sheet. The shoes of all classes are of the usual leather type, but grass sandals are much worn by the hill-men. Wooden

clogs for use in the villages on muddy days are also common.

Amusements.—Of amusements there are few. Tent-pegging is a favourite pastime in the Pakhli and Haripur plains, where also the game of *parkodi* or *tatti* (the Derajat *doda*) has a measure of popularity. But the hillier tracts afford little scope for such diversions.

Festive and Religious Gatherings.—There is no festive or religious gathering of any very great importance, but at the most sacred of the numerous shrines and holy places, with which the District is studded, there are minor festivals of this nature. For the Hindus the most important local gatherings are the following :

On the festival of *Durga Ashtami* (in March and October) 1,000 persons or so collect on the top of the Bareri hill near Mansehra to worship Devi, and to present offerings, which are taken by a Brahmin.

On the 1st *Baisakh* and 6th *Phagan* (*i.e.*, in April and February) a few hundred persons assemble to worship a stone *ling* in a temple at Chitti Gatti near Mansehra.

In *Sawan* (August), on the ninth day of the new moon, about 1,000 Hindus assemble at the *Dera* (temple) of Bhai Kirpa Ram at Kot Najibullah to worship and present offerings.

To the following places both Hindus and Muhammadans resort :

The *Ziarat* of Jamal Ghazi at Dhamtaur. Here 1,000 or 2,000 gather at the two *Id* festivals (*i.e.*, the *Id-ul-fitar* and the *Id-ul-zohr*), and about 2,000 Hindus on the 2nd and 3rd of *Baisakh*.

The tank and shrine at Mangal. A number of Hindus gather at the tank in the Mangal nullah on the 1st *Baisakh*, and on both the *Ids* there is a large assembly of Muhammadans, both here and at the shrine of Mian Kangal Sahib on the Mansehra road, a little further to the north. The saint is said to have been the son of an

Emperor of Delhi, who turned fakir, and ended his wanderings at this spot.

Of the local Muhammadan festivals, the following, which are both held on the two *Ids*, are the most important:

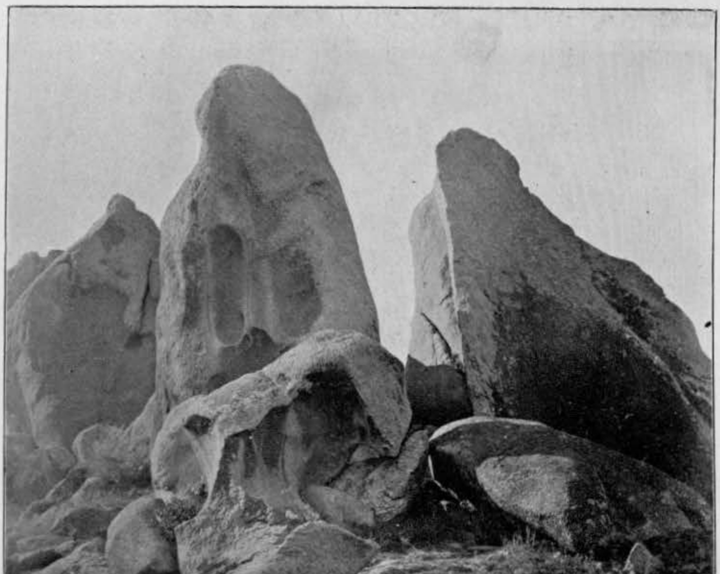
The *Ziarat* of Sher Muhammad Ghazi at Dari, 7 miles north-west of Haripur. 4,000 or 5,000 persons gather here, and the festivities, which include *tatti* and tent-pegging, last for two days.

The *Ziarat* of Diwan Raja Baba at Gulibagh, on the western edge of the Pakhli plain. About 500 persons, both men and women, assemble here for a day to present offerings, and to enjoy themselves in the same way as at the Dari shrine.

There are small gatherings of the residents in the vicinity at the shrines of Sain Malpat near Dhamtaur, of Shekh Baba and Mehr Ali Baba at Bajna near Shinkiari, of Bala Pir at Balakot, of Saiad Jalal Baba at Bhogarmang, of Naubat Shah at Lachimang, of Tortan Baba at Shamdharra, of Mian Khaki at Dharra and of Haidar Baba at Ghanian, the last three being all in Agror.



THE TANK OF THE JAMAL GHAZI ZIARAT AT DHAMTAUR.



THE SACRED STONES ON THE TOP OF THE BARERI HILL.

CHAPTER III

ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

Cultivated Area (Table XVIII.).—The cultivated area of the District is about 430,000 acres, or 24 per cent. of the whole. Statistics show that there has been an increase of 13 per cent. during the last thirty years, but the measurements of the First Regular Settlement were very incorrect, and in reality, no doubt, the expansion has been much greater. In the plain tracts most of the culturable ground has now been broken up, but in the hills there are large areas of waste still available, and it is probable that the close of the operations of the Second Regular Settlement in 1907 will be signalized by large extensions of cultivation. But the new land brought under the plough will generally be of an inferior description.

Character of Cultivation.—In the plain tracts the quality of the cultivation is nothing remarkable. The most valuable irrigated lands, it is true, are tended with great care. The grower of rice in the Pakhli and Bakot tracts, or of sugar-cane and turmeric on the banks of the Dor, has little to learn, and in some of the villages west of Haripur the cultivation of unirrigated land is equally good. But, generally speaking, the methods of cultivation, especially on dry soils, are a little slovenly. The people are not by nature inclined to great exertion; thanks to the plentiful rainfall and the natural fertility of the soil, there is usually a fair crop in any circumstances, and there is little real poverty to act as an incentive. But in the hills things are somewhat different. Here little

can be achieved without labour. The fields have to be terraced and levelled to catch and retain the rainfall; the terraces have to be strengthened and supported by stone walls to prevent their slipping down the hill-side; the stony soil has to be carefully manured if the crop is to yield an adequate return or, in a bad year, any return at all. And in several tracts like Tanawal, Badhnak, and the Mishwani villages of the Gandgar range, the poverty that results from the smallness of the holdings or an occasional failure of the crop is an additional stimulus to exertion. Consequently, we find much painstaking and laborious cultivation in the hills, and the series of terraced fields on the steep slopes are wonders of patient industry. Yet equal care is not always shown, and in the more elevated tracts in particular, where the slope is sometimes too precipitous to admit of the construction of retaining walls, there is much worthless cultivation. The surface of the hill-side is merely scratched with the hoe, and inferior grain sown thereon, without any precaution against the rain, that in a year or two washes away the soil, and leaves the place bare and unculturable.

System of Agriculture.—Naturally, in a District where so many and wide variations of altitude, rainfall, and climate are exhibited, the system of agriculture is by no means uniform. In the higher hills, where the winter is too severe for the *rabi* to flourish, the *kharif* is the only crop of real importance. In the tracts with a more temperate climate (3,000 to 4,500 feet) the *kharif* is still the chief crop, but the *rabi* is also of considerable value. In the plains or lower hills, at an elevation of less than about 3,000 feet, the *rabi* crop is somewhat more important than the *kharif*, except on irrigated lands. Of the total cropped area of the District, it may be said that 60 per cent. is *kharif* and 40 per cent. *rabi*, though the proportions vary somewhat from year to year. Double-cropping is very prevalent on all but the worst of the irrigated soils, and on all unirrigated land that is manured. But in the

more elevated tracts even manured land only yields a single crop (generally *kharif*) a year, or three crops (two *kharif* and one *rabi*) in two years. On the other hand, the so-called *negar* land in Tanawal, that receives silt from mountain torrents, produces two crops a year without manure, as does some of the *maira* in Pakhli. But in the latter case the second crop is an inferior one. The worst of the sloping cultivation in the hills sometimes only yields a crop once every second or third year, but, as a rule, all lands that are not double-cropped are sown once a year. In the Khari tract, however, the usual system of cultivation is to grow two crops in succession, followed by a year of fallow.

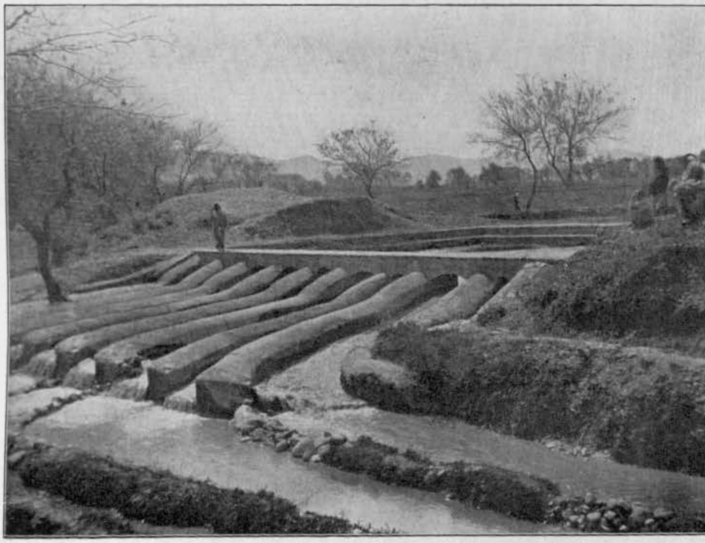
Irrigation from Streams.—Of the total cultivated area, 10 per cent. is irrigated, nearly all from springs and streams. These have been described in Chapter I. The water is drawn off from them into watercourses by means of dams of stone and brushwood. The watercourses (called *kathas*, if large ; *kathis*, if small) are often carried for long distances along the side of a hill or through ground which they cannot command, and much labour is spent on their construction and maintenance. Where more than one village shares a watercourse, the rule in some cases is that the upper village takes as much as it wants, and then passes it on to the lower ; in others, that each village has a certain fixed share allotted to it, and can enjoy the water in turn for so many hours or days. Near Haripur the Dor water is distributed to a number of villages from what is known as the Rangila tank ; it is poured into this by a single channel, and it emerges from it by a series of apertures, whose width is proportioned to the customary share enjoyed by the village or villages to which each aperture and the watercourse connected with it belong. Within the villages themselves the distribution of the water is nearly always *lariwar*—that is to say, each cultivator takes what he wants in turn, beginning with the man who is nearest to the head of the watercourse, and

ending with the man who is farthest from it. A record, drawn up at Settlement, of irrigation customs on the Dor, Siran, and Harroh rivers, and the separate administration papers of each village, contain particulars of the practices and rights above described.

Extension of Irrigation.—Whether there is much room for extension of this kind of irrigation in the District, except at prohibitive expense, may be doubted. One or two schemes for new canals have been abandoned on account of their cost, and probably more is to be gained by a greater economy in the use of water, which will allow villages at the tail end of the irrigation systems to increase their supply, than by any other method. Here and there a dam has been built across a stream, which has encouraged alluvion and prevented erosion, and it might be possible in some cases to construct embankments in nullahs, and draw off flood water to irrigate the lands of submontane villages. But the slope is generally too great or the nullah too deep for such schemes to succeed.

Wells.—The wells of the District are practically confined to the plain tracts of the Haripur tahsil, which other means of irrigation cannot reach. Most of them are built of cut or uncut stone, and cemented with mud, and they cost anything from 100 to 500 rupees, according to their depth and the facilities for procuring the necessary material. The area irrigated is small, averaging between 3 and 4 acres, but it is generally double-cropped, and the yields are large. The most profitable crops are vegetables and tobacco. In 1907 wells numbered 320 in all, having increased 100 per cent. in the last thirty years or so. There is still room for new ones, especially in the Khari tract along the Indus, and in regard to this class of irrigation, at any rate, it is fairly certain that the next twenty years will see a considerable advance.

Soils.—The cultivated soils of the District are of great variety, and the local terms for them are very numerous.



THE RANGILA IRRIGATION TANK.



SOME FIELDS OF HOTAR.

In the revenue records they have been reduced to the following. Of those that are irrigated there are *chahi*, which is watered by wells; *bagh*,* which is heavily manured land in the vicinity of the village site or homestead; *bahardi abi*, which is land farther removed from the village site than *bagh*, and receiving less manure; *hotar*, or rice-growing land, which usually lies in carefully and ingeniously constructed terraces on the edges of streams; *barangar abi*, inferior stony soil with a scanty water-supply; and *gharera abi*, the stony land lying in the beds of streams, and exposed to their action. Among unirrigated soils are *bari* or *chari*, which, like *bagh*, is manured land near the village site or homestead; *kund*, which is land lying in a hollow or on the edge of a stream or nullah, with special facilities for receiving and retaining moisture; *bela*, which in Mansehra is the same as *kund*, and elsewhere is moist or marshy soil; *maira*, the ordinary loam of the Punjab plains, a mixture of clay and sand, varying much in their relative proportions; *rakkar*, bad stony land, often somewhat uneven, and generally found at the base of hills or on the edges of ravines; and *kalsi*, which is the sloping cultivation on hill-sides, terraced where practicable to a certain degree of flatness. Of the above, *bagh* is the richest, and is the soil which grows most of the vegetables, sugar-cane, and turmeric in the District; when not under any of these, it has heavy crops of cereals. *Bahardi abi* is generally double-cropped with cereals; *hotar*, besides rice, grows some wheat or barley occasionally as a second crop, and more often *shaftal* or clover; *barangar abi* and *gharera abi* are usually single-cropped. *Bari* grows two crops a year, except in the cooler tracts,

* *Bagh* is properly, as the word implies, 'garden land,' and should strictly be confined to soil that grows fruit, vegetables, sugar-cane, or turmeric. But in Hazara, for convenience' sake, it is commonly applied to all first-class irrigated land. At the Second Regular Settlement, however, a distinction was drawn in the records of the Abbottabad tahsil between the most valuable land of this character and what was really only irrigated cereal-growing *bari*. The former was called *bagh* and the latter *bari abi*.

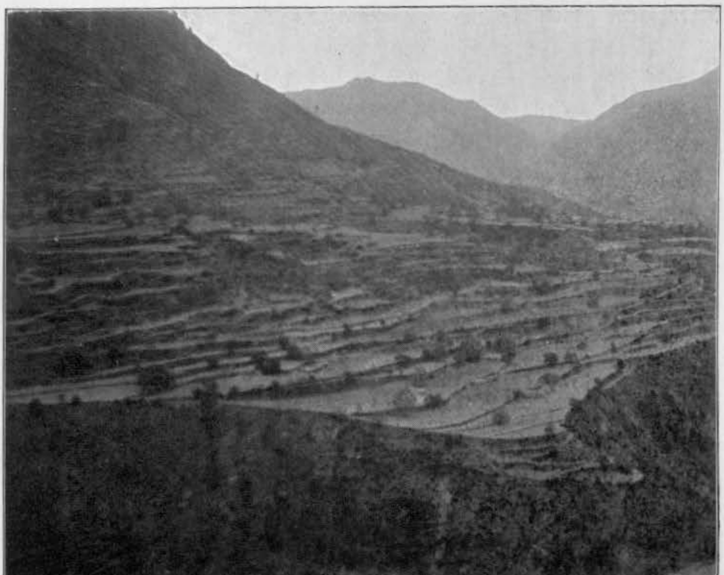
where it may have only one crop a year, or three crops in two years. The rest, except the *negar kund* of Tanawal, and the Pakhli *maira*, noted in a previous paragraph, are usually single-cropped unless they get manure. The poorest *kalsi*, however, as before stated, may only have a crop every second or third year.

Waste.—Like the cultivated land, the waste has also distinctions which no account of the District should omit. There is, in the first place, *banna*, which means the banks of fields or the strips of waste that separate one cultivated terrace from another, and which usually grow a valuable crop of grass. Then there is *dhaka rakh*, or hill land (*dhaka* meaning ' hill ' in the vernacular), on which the grass is preserved during the rainy season and cut as fodder, the cattle being afterwards turned on to graze. There are also *dhaka charagah* and *dhaka darakhtan*, the first being hill waste used for grazing purposes, on which no attempt is made to preserve the grass, and the second hill waste which is thickly covered with trees or brushwood. Each of these classes of waste has its uses in supplementing the resources of the villagers.

The Rabi.—The sowing of the *rabi* crop commences in September. In the cool and the temperate zones it ends by the beginning of November, and if during this period the rainfall is deficient there is very little sown at all. But in the less elevated tracts the season extends till the beginning of January, and consequently, even if the autumn rains fail, a large area may be sown at the first advent of the winter rains. And often the seed is put in the soil when it is dry, in the hope that rain will come at no distant date, and cause it to sprout. In these latter tracts the crop ripens towards the end of April or early in May ; but in the other tracts it is not cut till the end of May or till June. The oil-seeds ripen first, then the barley, and then the wheat. At a height of between 6,000 and 7,000 feet some coarse wheat is sown in August, and takes a year or eleven months to mature.



A STEEP BIT OF KALSI.



HILL BARI AND MAIRA, WITH KALSI AT THE BACK.

The Kharif.—The sowing time of the *kharif* varies from April to August, and the harvesting from September to December. Sugar-cane, however, may be planted in March, and both it and turmeric may not be harvested till January or February. The cooler the land, the earlier generally is the sowing of unirrigated crops in the hills, and the later the reaping. In the plains and in tracts of low elevation the time of sowing on dry soils depends largely on the nature of the summer rains. On unirrigated lands, except in the case of rice, the cereals are not usually sown till July or August.

Crops—Maize (Table XIX.).—Maize is the staple crop of the District. It covers 42 per cent. of the total area under crop in both harvests, and is of primary importance everywhere except in the western portion of the Haripur plain, where its place is largely taken by *bajra*. In the more elevated tracts it is the sole crop of any real value. It is called *agetri* or *pichetri*, according as it is sown early or late. On the cooler lands it is nearly all *agetri*, being sown in April or May; but sometimes the young shoots are destroyed by a small green caterpillar, the sowing has to be done over again, and the crop becomes *pichetri*; elsewhere, on the unirrigated soils, it depends on the summer rains whether it is sown in June, July, or August. It is harvested between September and November. There is also an early crop which is sown in April on the best irrigated lands, usually among the turmeric, and is cut at the end of July. It is known as *sathi makki*. There are several varieties of maize, the most popular being the white and the yellow 'country' (*desi* or *watni*) varieties and the American. Of the two first, the white is the more prevalent, having the larger and tastier grain. Yellow maize does better in hot tracts, as it requires less water; it is also grown at higher elevations. The American maize was introduced in 1892 from five varieties of seed sent by the Director of Land Records, Punjab. It soon became popular, and has spread so much that it now

covers nearly half the area under this grain. It has a larger cob and stalk than the Indian varieties, though the grain is somewhat coarser. It does best on lands that are naturally moist or have a heavy rainfall.

Before the grain is sown, the land is ploughed from three to five times if fairly level, but only twice if sloping ; if the soil is irrigated or manured, the fields are flooded or manured once also. Sowing is broadcast, and as soon as possible—that is, after the first shower—a further ploughing is given to cover the grain. When the seed has begun to sprout, weeding (*godi*) with a hoe usually takes place. In addition to this, or in lieu of it, the crop, when about 18 inches high, is lightly ploughed over in order to thin out the young shoots, and to facilitate absorption of the rainfall. This operation is called *sil.* At harvest-time the stalks are cut about 8 inches from the ground, and tied in bundles, which are piled together and left to dry in the sun. After a week or so the cobs are picked off from the stalks, and the grain is threshed by being beaten with sticks, or is separated from the rest of the cob with a kind of skewer. Before it is ready for sale or grinding it has again to be thoroughly dried in the sun. The yield varies greatly according to the character of the soil. On the most valuable irrigated soils in the Haripur tahsil and on the moist lands of the Rash plain it sometimes rises to 40 or 30 maunds an acre. On the worst unirrigated lands it is not more than 3 or 4 maunds. The average yield throughout the District may be taken as from 9 to 10 maunds an acre.

Rice.—Rice is in certain portions of the District a valuable *kharif* crop, though it covers only 3 per cent. of the cropped area of the year. It requires a plentiful supply of water, and where this is available is grown almost everywhere, except in the irrigated plain tracts of the Haripur tahsil, and above a height of 5,500 feet. The most valuable rice-fields are in Pakhli on the Siran ; after them come those in Rash, in the Kunhar and

Agror valleys, and in the Bakot tract. The ploughing of the rice-fields begins in April, or later if there has been a *rabi* crop on them. Water is let on to them (as has also been done throughout the winter if a sufficient supply is forthcoming), and the slush is stirred with the plough and harrow. In the meantime the seeds are prepared for sowing by being placed in soft, almost liquid, manure, which is covered with leaves and exposed to the sun. As soon as the seedlings (*bakhai* or *paniri*) are ready for planting they are put into small plots, which have been specially prepared for them by manuring with leaves and by daily waterings. After a month, when the rice-shoots are 5 inches high, transplanting (*tropi*) begins, the crop growing in 3 *marlas* (or $\frac{3}{160}$ of an acre), being spread over 1 acre. Afterwards constant waterings and weedings are necessary, and the harvest begins in October. There are numerous varieties of rice, the most common being *kamod* or *lundi*, *garrara* and *kanhuri*. Yields may be anything from 3 maunds of unhusked grain an acre to 40, and the average yield for the District is perhaps from 16 to 17 maunds.

Other Kharif Cereals.—Of the *kharif* cereals, *bajra* is cultivated in the plain tracts of the Haripur tahsil, and covers about 11,000 acres. *Jowar* is also grown there to some extent, mostly in the form of *chari*, for fodder purposes. In the hills *kangni* (Italian millet) and *chin* or buckwheat (called in Kagan *drawa*) are grown on the poorer soils. Other *kharif* crops deserving mention are cotton, sugar-cane, turmeric, and potatoes. The first three are grown chiefly in the Haripur plain, and potatoes in the villages on either side of the Dunga Gali range. Cotton covers altogether some 5,000 acres, potatoes 1,200, sugar-cane 800, and turmeric 700. The first two are usually unirrigated; the latter two require plentiful watering and manuring.

Kharif Pulses.—*Kharif* pulses occupy 10 per cent. or so of the total cropped area. The main varieties are

mung (*Phaseolus mungo*), *mash* (*Phaseolus radiatus*), *moth* (*Phaseolus aconitifolius*), *rawan* or *arwan*, and *kulath* (horse gram). The commonest is *kulath*, which is grown on soil that is not good enough for maize. *Mung* and *mash* are often sown mixed up with maize ; *moth* is of some importance in parts of the Haripur plain, where its straw is much valued for fodder.

Rabi Crops—Wheat.—Wheat is the staple *rabi* crop, except in Tanawal and Badhnak, where it yields in popularity to barley. It covers about 25 per cent. of the total cropped area. The commonest variety is that known as *ratta*, the reddish bearded grain of the Punjab plains. The *chitta*, or white variety, is found here and there, as is also the *moni*, or beardless wheat, which ripens quicker than the others. The average yield is perhaps 6 or 7 maunds per acre.

Barley.—Barley covers 10 per cent. of the total cropped area. It is a favourite grain for double-cropped lands, as it can be sown later and ripens earlier than wheat ; and being hardier than the latter, it does better on inferior soils. Except the so-called *paighambri* barley, which is grown as an early *kharif* crop on the highest cultivation in the Kagan valley, it is all of one variety. The yield is generally a maund or so an acre heavier than wheat.

Oil-seeds and Pulses.—Oil-seeds cover about 2 per cent. of the total cropped area. There is some *tara mira* in the south-western corner of the Haripur tahsil, but the favourite crop is *sarshaf* (*Brassica campestris*), which is grown all over the District up to a height of about 4,200 feet. Like barley, it is often found on double-cropped lands ; it is sown about the same time, and cut a little earlier. The average yield is from 3 to 4 maunds. It is peculiarly liable to attacks from an insect known as *leia*. The *rabi* pulses are unimportant. Gram is only grown in the Haripur tahsil, and that to a small extent. In the Abbottabad and Mansehra tahsils about 4,000 acres are under lentil (*masar* or *masuri*).

Fodder Crops.—For fodder purposes the sweet-smelling clover called *shaftal* is grown extensively on the rice-lands, notably in the Mansehra tahsil and the Rash plain. It is specially valued as a food for horses. As regards straw or *bhusa*, the people usually have so much fodder in the shape of maize-stalks, *shaftal*, or grass, that the need of economizing the wheat and barley stalks is not felt. Often little more than the ears of the grain is reaped, and the greater part of the stalks is left to be burnt or ploughed into the ground. But of recent years the extension of the cart road to Kashmir, and the enlargement of the Abbottabad cantonment, have increased the demand for fodder, and the villagers are learning to be more careful of their surplus stocks.

Vegetables and Fruit.—Vegetables of various kinds are grown on the richer irrigated lands wherever there is a market near at hand for them. Fruit gardens are a feature of the Haripur tahsil, the most noted being those immediately in the vicinity of Haripur and on the edge of the Harroh by Khanpur. They produce plums, apricots, peaches, grapes, loquats, oranges, and mangoes, and are very valuable. Some of the plums and apricots are excellent, and the Khanpur grapes are well known, but, generally speaking, there is much room for improvement in the quality of the produce. In the hills, also, numerous trees of the first four kinds here mentioned are to be found, but they are inferior to those of the plains and often practically worthless. In the Nara and Lora tracts pears are extensively cultivated and sold in Murree, the Galis, or Rawalpindi. The fruit is disappointing and tasteless, but there seems no reason why, with the introduction of proper scientific methods, the pears and apples of Hazara should not rival those of Kulu and Kashmir.

Water-mills.—Almost all the grain of the District that is consumed within its limits is ground by water-power. On every stream, however small, provided there is sufficient water to turn a mill for a month or so in the year,

one or more *jandars*, as they are called, are erected, and the grain of the neighbourhood is brought to them for grinding. On the larger streams the mills work all the year through, and many of them are of considerable value. Among the most notable are the snuff mills at Serai Saleh, on the Dor, which grind tobacco brought from Swabi and Chach. Besides the *jandars*, there are rice mills or *pekohs*, which are almost confined to the Mansehra tahsil. In these, by an ingenious contrivance, a large wooden hammer is lifted and let fall in a quick succession of strokes on the grain that lies in a trough below. There are now 3,600 *jandars* and 200 *pekohs* in the District, but owing to river action and other causes their number varies somewhat from year to year. Under rules introduced at the Second Regular Settlement, no new mill can be started and no abandoned mill reconstructed without the sanction of the Deputy Commissioner.

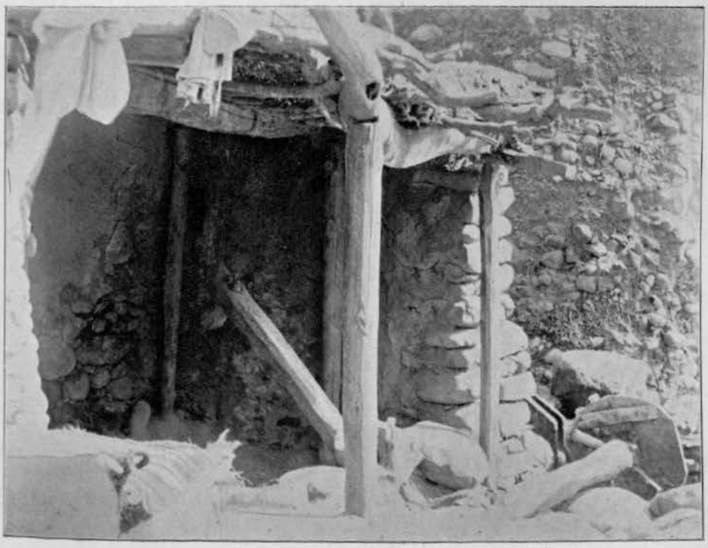
Cultivating Occupancy (Table XXXVIII.).—The following percentages show how the cultivated area is held:

	Per Cent.
Cultivated by owners and tenants free of rent	46
Cultivated by occupancy tenants paying cash rents ...	20
Cultivated by occupancy tenants paying kind rents ...	12
Cultivated by tenants-at-will paying cash rents ...	6
Cultivated by tenants-at-will paying kind rents ...	16

The area cultivated by owners is largest in the Abbottabad tahsil, where it is 57 per cent. of the whole. In tracts like Badhnak, Lower Tanawal, and Boi, nearly all the land is in the hands of the proprietors themselves. In such cases the cultivated holdings are remarkably small, averaging perhaps 3 acres, and were it not for the waste the outlook would be parlous indeed. The occupancy tenants are an industrious body, often well provided with cattle, and generally in fairly prosperous circumstances. The tenants-at-will are drawn in the main from the same classes as the occupancy tenants. Many, in fact, owe their less privileged position to mis-



JANDARS ON THE DOR.



A PEKOH.

takes in the record of the First Regular Settlement—mistakes which have ever since been a fruitful source of litigation ; others, though they may not be able to claim occupancy rights, have been in possession of their holdings so long, and have bestowed so much labour on their land, that the heavy compensation which would have to be paid for improvements effectually deters their landlords from evicting them. Many tenants-at-will, again, are simply occupancy tenants who have broken up land outside their original holdings. Others are proprietors who add to their resources by renting other proprietors' lands. In fact, the tenant-at-will pure and simple, who is here one year and there the next, is not very common.

Farm Labourers.—Where a proprietor does not cultivate his land with his own hands, and does not choose to put in a tenant, he usually employs what is called a *hali*. The latter is a farm labourer, who ploughs the land for his master, looks after the crops, and tends the cattle. He has no share in either the cattle or the land, but in remuneration for his services receives one-fifth, sometimes one-fourth, of the produce. He is generally an agriculturist who has lost his own land through debt or poverty. The master to whom a *hali* engages himself commonly pays his debts for him, and often he advances him money, so as to strengthen his hold on him and prevent him leaving. For it is an understood part of the agreement between them that, till his debt is paid, a *hali* cannot transfer his services elsewhere.

Dues and Services.—The dues and services rendered by the tenants to the landlords are a very important item in the numerous villages, where there is a marked gap between the social status of the two classes, and their relations in the past were of feudal nature. The tenant may have to spend a day or two of each year in ploughing his landlord's land, planting out his rice, and cutting his crop of corn or of hay. He may have to bring him a supply of wood or grass from time to time, to pay him a

rupee or so when his daughter is married, and to give him an annual present of butter or of *ghi*. And when he pays rent in kind there are generally a few sers of grain to be added to the landlord's share as the equivalent of dues of various sorts. Sometimes, also, the kind rent is augmented by a fixed sum in cash known as *halchuri*, which is calculated at a rupee or more per plough, and is really on account of the waste included in the holding.

Relations between Landlords and Tenants.—Relations between landlords and tenants cannot be called altogether satisfactory. Complaints of oppression on the part of the former, and of insubordination on the part of the latter, are rife, and not without foundation. The feelings inevitably engendered by the proceedings at the First Regular Settlement—when conflicting claims, which had long been in suspense, were settled in favour of one party or the other—have not yet altogether subsided, and there has been much litigation during the last thirty years. There is a growing tendency on the part of the tenants to assert their independence, and the discussions on dues and services, which the proceedings of the Second Regular Settlement reopened, showed them as struggling to throw off the yoke. It is probable that the future will see some weakening of the hold of the landlords, but it is to be hoped in the interests of the District administration that their authority will not seriously be impaired.

Debt and Alienations.—Like most Muhammadan agriculturists, the Hazara *zamindar* is a somewhat improvident person. He ought to be better off than formerly, for prices have risen greatly in the last thirty years, cultivation has extended, communications have improved, markets have multiplied, and fresh avenues of employment have been opened. Such advantages more than compensate for the increase in the population, the subdivision of the holdings, and the enhancement of the revenue. Yet these very advantages are his temptations.

For increasing prosperity brings an increasing desire to spend. He buys better clothes for himself, or more costly jewellery for his women-folk; he eats more expensive food, or builds a more substantial house; he runs into greater extravagances on a lawsuit, a wedding, or a funeral. His income does not keep pace with his expenditure, and, credit being easy, he accumulates a bigger debt than before. And an occasional bad season, a sudden hailstorm or flood, a series of fatalities among his cattle, may make matters much worse. Thus it has come about that the floating debt of Hazara is very considerable—at the Second Regular Settlement it was estimated that the proprietors owed about 19 lakhs of rupees, or 28 rupees per head—and many families are heavily in debt. Yet the picture is not really a very black one. For if the unsecured debt is large, the secured debt is comparatively small. Fourteen per cent. of the total cultivated area is under mortgage, and under one-third of this is pledged to members of non-agricultural tribes (Table XXI.). The money-lender has, in fact, got very little grip of the land except in a few villages. As he is not a large cattle-owner, the remoter hill tracts have little to tempt him, and in more accessible and fertile regions the villagers are in sufficiently easy circumstances to hold their own. And alienations to agriculturists need not cause misgiving. They show that the thrifty are benefiting at the expense of the extravagant, and that the agricultural tribes have a quantity of money available for investment. So there are redeeming features in the situation, and, in fact, it is fairly safe to draw the conclusion that in Hazara the indebtedness of the people is much more often their fault than their misfortune. That matters will mend in future is not improbable. For, apart from other considerations, the introduction of the Punjab Alienation Act in 1904, a timely and, with most of the agriculturists, a very popular measure, has arrested the transfer of land to the money-lender's hands, and, by making credit somewhat less

facile than before, has caused the *zamindar* to bethink him seriously of curtailing extravagant expenditure.

Interest, Government Loans, and Co-operative Credit Societies (Table XX.).—Interest on debts is commonly paid in grain, and amounts to 1 or 2 odis per annum in the rupee. An odi is 4 or 5 sers, and the rates are roughly equivalent to 25 and 50 per cent. respectively. Cash interest is usually either 1 or 2 pice in the rupee per month —that is, 18¾ rupees, or 37½ rupees per cent. per annum. In spite of these high rates, little recourse is had to Government loans. The total outstanding in 1906 for advances under the Land Improvement Loans Act was less than 13,000 rupees, and for advances under the Agriculturists' Loans Act about 4,500 rupees, and this, in the case of the former at any rate, is considerably in excess of the average of previous years. Nor have attempts to start Co-operative Credit Societies met with any success. The people are excessively apathetic on the subject, and their religious objections to the taking of interest are for the present an almost insuperable obstacle to any progress in this direction.

Cattle, Sheep, and Goats (Table XXII.).—Cattle, sheep, and goats are a very important feature in the economy of the District. They supply manure for the fields, meat and milch produce for sale or home consumption, hair for ropes, wool for clothing, hides for export. Except for a number of strong and sturdy animals that are bred in the Haripur plain to draw the carts that ply on the Kashmir road, the bullocks are small-sized, though hardy. The cows, which occasionally are also yoked to the plough, are the same, and are indifferent milkers. The buffalo cows are a good breed, and yield milk largely. All the cattle display a wonderful agility and surefootedness on the steep hill-slopes. The sheep also are small, and some merino rams from Australia have been introduced recently to improve the breed. They are good eating, Kagan mutton being especially excellent. Goats are very

numerous, especially in the upland valleys. Large numbers of them spend the summer months in Kagan or at the head of the Bhogarmang glen, and then migrate for the winter to the warmer climate of the Khanpur or Tanawal hills, or across the border of the District. Valuable as they are for their manure, their hair, milk, hides, and flesh, they are on the whole a more than doubtful blessing. The poison of the goat's tooth is an old story that Virgil knew :

> 'Frigora nec tantum canâ concreta pruinâ
> Aut gravis incumbens scopulis arentibus æstas
> Quantum illi nocuere greges durique venenum
> Dentis et admorso signata in stirpe cicatrix.'

Where a flock of goats constantly browses, no trees or brushwood can flourish; the young shoots are remorselessly consumed, the soil, loosened by the sharp feet, is washed away by heavy rain, and what was once a well-wooded slope becomes a bare and ugly waste. The Gandgar, Tanawal, and Nara hills afford silent but eloquent testimony of the ravages committed by these pests, and the evil has become so great that, as will be described in a later chapter, a tax has been imposed to keep down their numbers.

Horses, Mules, Camels, and Donkeys.—The horses and ponies in the hills are generally small and scraggy. The best come from Kohistan and Allai; but there are excellent mares in the Haripur plain, where some of the leading *zamindars* display great interest in horse-breeding. Mules are a great speciality of the District. There are nearly 4,000 of them, and though rather small, they are greatly in request for transport purposes. Numbers are sold to purchasers who hail from the Rawalpindi District and elsewhere. Camels are confined almost entirely to the plain tracts of the Haripur tahsil, where they are used for transport. Donkeys are also commonest in the Haripur tahsil. There are six horse and twenty donkey stallions employed in the District, which is in the Rawal-

pindi circle of the Army Remount Department. Two veterinary assistants supervise breeding operations.

Horse and Cattle Fair.—No horse fair is held in the District, and would-be exhibitors have to take their animals to Rawalpindi or Peshawar; but a cattle fair was inaugurated in 1906, and will, it is hoped, become a permanent institution.

Rents (Table XXXVIII.).—From the statistics given on a preceding page it will be seen that 26 per cent. of the cultivated area is held by tenants paying cash, and 28 per cent. by tenants paying in kind. More than two-thirds of the cash rents and nearly one-half of the kind rents are paid by occupancy tenants, and are therefore not competitive in character; and the rents of the many tenants-at-will, who approximate in status to occupancy tenants, are of a similar nature. Even for ordinary tenants-at-will rents are governed at least as much by custom as by competition. The kind rent is usually one-half on the best soils, two-fifths on the medium, and one-third or one-fourth on the worst. In Konsh and Bhogarmang a common rent is one-fourth or one-third of the produce plus *halchuri*. But some rack-renting landlords, generally Hindu money-lenders, take as much as two-thirds or even three-fourths on the best land, and one-half on the rest. For cash rents in most tracts there are no fixed rules. There are a few cases of acreage rates—on well-lands, for example, the rents are usually from 1 rupee 12 annas to 2 rupees 2 annas a *kanal* (one-eighth of an acre)—but the form most often taken is a lump sum on the holding, termed *chakota*, which is the subject of mutual agreement between the landlord and tenant. On the best-irrigated land this rent may be competitive, and works out as high as 10 or 12 rupees a *kanal*. The average rate for *bagh* land in the villages round Haripur may perhaps be assumed as equivalent to 5 rupees a *kanal*. In the hills, too, cash rents, as worked out on the cultivated area, sometimes seem very high, but here the waste

has to be taken into account. The inclusion of the latter in most holdings renders cash rents more common than kind rents in such tracts. But if the waste is unimportant, the proprietor holds out for a kind rent wherever he can. It gives him more power over his tenant, and carries with it greater prestige among his own class. On the other hand, the tenant paying in kind would generally pay in cash if he could, for he thereby reaps the whole of the benefit of increased production on his holding, instead of having to give the landlord a share, and, as his crop is usually secure, he need not fear that he will get no return for his labour. It is for this reason that the cultivation of cash-rented lands is often noticeably superior to the cultivation of those that are kind-rented.

Wages (Table XXV.).—The wages of skilled labour are from 12 annas to 6 annas, and of unskilled labour from 6 annas to 3 annas, a day. It is difficult to be sure of statistics in a matter of this kind, but there can be little doubt that the wages of unskilled labour, at any rate, have risen in the last thirty years. In 1870 the highest and lowest wages for such labour are stated to have been 3 annas and 2 annas 6 pies respectively, and it is certain that such a wage as 6 annas, which is the recognized rate for coolies in the Galis, was not dreamt of in those days. The wages of the village carpenter and blacksmith, however, remain the same as of old. They are paid in grain at harvest-time in amounts that vary in different tracts, but which on the average may be taken as 3 or 4 odis per plough at either harvest, or 1 odi per *chhat* of 60 odis. In addition to this they get one or two sheaves of corn.

Prices (Table XXVI.).—In a District of varied characteristics and difficult communications like Hazara prices are bound to be very far from uniform. A grain that is especially plentiful in one tract will be cheaper there than elsewhere. On the other hand, the more inaccessible or the more distant that any tract may be from a large trade centre, the greater the cost of the articles imported

into it. In ordinary years the District is not self-supporting so far as grain is concerned, and as there is no railway within its limits to facilitate transport, prices naturally rule somewhat higher than in neighbouring Districts with easier communications. Thus, if wheat sells in Hazara at 15 sers in the rupee, in Rawalpindi and Peshawar it may sell at 17 or 18. If the projected railway to Abbottabad becomes a reality, one effect of it, no doubt, will be to reduce prices more to the same level as elsewhere.

The prices assumed at the Second Regular Settlement in 1902 were 31 sers per rupee for unhusked rice, 28, 31, or 33 sers for maize, 24 or 22 sers for wheat, and 36 sers for barley. These were considerably lower than the actual prices then prevalent, and it is fairly certain that in the next twenty years they will seldom, if ever, be touched. Of live stock, the average prices may be said to be 25 rupees for a bullock or a cow, 50 rupees for a buffalo, 3 rupees for a sheep, and 4 rupees for a goat. *Ghi* sells at an average of $1\frac{1}{4}$ sers to the rupee, grass varies between 10 and 16 annas a maund, and wood between 6 and 8 annas. If we turn to land, we find that an average cultivated acre costs from 80 to 90 rupees, but here, of course, prices vary enormously with the quality of the land transferred. The best-irrigated land in the Haripur tahsil is worth from 800 to 1,600 rupees an acre, and, on the other hand, an acre of *kalsi* may not fetch more than 30 or 40 rupees. The above prices show a very marked rise on those of thirty years ago. Grain has gone up about 77 per cent., cattle 20 per cent., wood and grass 100 per cent., *ghi* 40 per cent., and the price of land has been doubled, trebled, or even quadrupled.

Standard of Living.—That this rise has in the main benefited the population there can be little doubt. It is true that a number of them have to buy grain to supplement their own resources instead of selling it, but the

increase in the value of live stock, wood, grass, and land, not to speak of the wages of unskilled labour, is almost entirely to their advantage. And this is shown by the undoubted rise in the standard of living. English has largely taken the place of country cloth, brass utensils of earthenware, the houses are more commodious and better built, the women-folk wear more jewellery, and expenditure on festive occasions is greater. That a large number of the people are still poor, and in a year of bad harvests have difficulty in making both ends meet, is to be admitted; yet even they are better off than they were before. If the crop fails them, they have their cattle to fall back upon, and it is only on the very rare occasions when both the cultivated land and the waste yield them no return that their case really becomes a serious one.

Forests (Table XXVII.).—Perhaps the chief importance of Hazara lies in its forests, and no branch of the District administration presents greater difficulties. The problem of reconciling the interests of forest conservancy with the legitimate requirements of the people is one that has vexed the soul of many a Deputy Commissioner and Forest Officer, has formed the theme of endless discussions, has led to the passing of more than one regulation and any number of rules (for Hazara has its special enactment, and is not under the Indian Forest Act), has evoked many fair-seeming plans and expedients, and after all these efforts is still very much alive.

Reserved Forests.—The forests may be divided into two main classes—reserved and village forests (the latter being termed in the vernacular *guzaras*). The former (with the exception of 6,000 acres demarcated in Agror in the year 1900) were set apart at the First Regular Settlement in 1872, and their boundaries were revised and corrected at the Second Regular Settlement. They lie chiefly in the northern and eastern portions of the District, near the Jhelum and its tributary the Kunhar. They vary

in elevation between 2,000 and 12,500 feet, at which latter height forest vegetation ceases.

Khanpur Range.—In the south of the District the forests are on the low hills of the Khanpur tract, running east and west on either side of the Harroh. The rock is limestone, and the soil, as a rule, poor and shallow. The hills average 4,500 feet in height, reaching 5,600 feet at the top of Sribang. Much of the area is bare, or contains only scattered bushes. Elsewhere the hills are covered with *chir* or *chil* (*Pinus longifolia*), or with an open forest of scrub, and it is here that the reservations have been made. The *chir*, which grows pure, is confined to the upper portion of the range. Of the scrub, the chief species are the olive, or *kao* (*Olea cuspidata*), the *phulai* (*Acacia modesta*), and the *sanatha* (*Dodonea viscosa*). These sometimes grow pure, but more often mixed. Other characteristic small trees and shrubs are *Acacia catechu* (*khair*), *Mallotus Phillipinensis*, *Carissa diffusa*, *Adhatoda viscosa*, *Vitex negundo*, various species of *Ficus*, and *Pistacia integerrima* (*kangar*). The chief value of these forests, apart from climatic considerations, is that they furnish fuel for Haripur, Abbottabad, and Rawalpindi.

Chir Forests, Mansehra Tahsil (*Lower Siran*).—Next in elevation may be considered the forests of *chir*, which cover the hills to the north, west, and east of the northern half of the Pakhli plain, at an elevation of between 3,000 and 6,000 feet. The slopes are moderate, and the rock volcanic. The *chir* is found almost pure and of all ages. Occasionally, near the upper limit, it is mixed with the *biar* or blue pine (*Pinus excelsa*). The undergrowth is chiefly formed by *Quercus incana* (*rhin*), *Zanthoxylon alatum*, *Rhododendron arboreum*, and *Andromeda ovalifolia*. The alder or *sharol* (*Alnus nitida*), is commonly found in the streams.

Dunga Gali and Thandiani Ranges.—At a greater height than the above are the forests of the Dunga Gali and Thandiani ranges, which lie generally between 5,000 and

9,000 feet, but reach 9,700 feet on the crest of Miran Jani. The underlying rocks are limestone and shale. The two important species are *biar* and *paludar* or silver fir (*Abies Webbiana*). The former tree is rapidly extending over slopes hitherto bare, or only covered with *Indigofera*. Large trees are comparatively few in number and are mostly of inferior growth. The *paludar*, on the other hand, though at present considerable areas are covered with mature trees, shows signs of disappearing from localities which it formerly occupied. The forests of this tract have furnished most of the timber used in the construction of the hill-stations at Murree and in the Galis, and of the Abbottabad cantonment. The two species of oak—*Quercus dilatata* (*barungi*) and *Quercus incana* (*rhin*)—furnish valuable charcoal much used in Murree. The depressions are occupied by deciduous species, of which the commonest are the chestnut or *bankhor* (*Æsculus Indica*), the bird-cherry or *kala kath* (*Prunus padus*), and various kinds of maple or *tarkan* (*Acer*). Other trees include the walnut or *akhor* (*Juglans regia*), the elm or *kain* (*Ulmus Wallichiana*), two kinds of poplar—the *safeda* (*Populus alba*) and the *palach* (*Populus ciliata*)—the *batkarar* (*Celtis Australis*), and the *drawa* (*Cedrela serrata*). Of shrubs, *Viburnum* (*guch* or *uklu*), *Lonicera quinquelocularis*, *Parrotia Jaquemontiana* (*peshor*), *Desmodium tiliæfolium* and *Indigofera* (*kenthi*), are the most abundant. Deodar (*Cedrus deodara*) occurs in a few scattered places. It was formerly more abundant, but the best trees were felled when the stations of Abbottabad and Murree were built. The highest parts of the ridge are covered in the summer with a dense growth of herb, among which are a few scattered walnut and maple trees. Spruce or *kachal* (*Picea morinda*) and *Quercus semecarpifolia* are also found in such places.

Kagan and Upper Siran.—The forests of Kagan and the Upper Siran to some extent resemble those of the Dunga Gali range, but the climate is much drier and the

species consequently fewer. The most important tree is the deodar, which is found as low as 4,500 and occasionally up to 10,000 feet, but the most valuable forests of which lie between 5,000 and 8,000 feet. The tree grows chiefly in rocky and precipitous ground, or on spurs. It is often found pure, particularly in the upper forests of the Kagan valley, where it is restricted to the warmer slopes. Elsewhere it is mixed with blue pine, silver fir, or spruce; and on cold slopes with deciduous trees also, like the chestnut, bird-cherry, maple, yew, or *barmi* (*Taxus baccata*), and *peshor*. The last named is fairly abundant, and under its cover young deodar is establishing itself. Blue pine is also spreading, as in the Dunga Gali range. Extensive areas above the deodar zone, and reaching to 12,500 feet, are covered with spruce and silver fir, among which blue pine and, in places, yew and *Quercus semecarpifolia* also occur. Birch (*burj*) and occasionally juniper (*chalai*) are found in the higher parts.

Agror Forests.—The recently reserved Agror forests are on the hill-slopes surrounding the valley of that name. They consist in the main of *chir*, with blue pine, silver fir, and various broad-leaved trees on the higher ridges.

Area of Reserved Forests.—Altogether the reserved forests of the District amount in area to nearly 250 square miles. If we deduct the hill-stations included in this area, and the 6,000 acres of forest in Agror which are managed by the Deputy Commissioner, the area immediately under the control of the Forest Department is 234 square miles. It is distributed between the five ranges as follows: Kagan, 76 square miles; Siran, 47; Dunga Gali, 32; Thandiani, 29; Khanpur, 50.

Village Forests: Character and Area.—The best village forests lie usually in the vicinity of the reserved forests, and partake of the same character, though they are not so well preserved or so thickly grown. In Tanawal and Badhnak, where there are no reserved forests, several village wastes show a good growth of scrub, and in the

former tract round the Biliana hill there is a quantity of *chir*. But, as a rule, both here and in other parts, such as the Gandgar and Nara hills, the depredations of goats, the ruthless cutting of wood by the villagers, and extensions of cultivation have left but the poorest apology of a village forest to indicate what might have been under a system of strict conservancy. There has been no demarcation of village forests as such. If we take them in the broadest sense, and include in them all village waste lands in the hills, they amount in area roughly to 1,700 square miles. Of these, some 420 square miles are grass preserves, 1,000 grazing-ground, 32 pure forest, and the remainder are barren unproductive land. The grass preserves are usually held in severalty, or, if they are jointly owned, are in the separate possession of tenants. The rest of the waste is generally village common, but there is an increasing tendency on the part of the proprietors to partition it among themselves. Trees are not, of course, confined to the pure forest; there is a large amount of scattered timber and brushwood on the other lands also, except where they are above the limit of such vegetation.

Working of Reserved Forests and Rights of Villagers therein.—The reserved forests under the control of the Forest Department are exploited on the lines laid down in their working plans. The Kagan timber is floated down the Kunhar and Jhelum rivers to the depot at Jhelum; that from the Upper Siran forests comes down the Siran river as far as Shinkiari. The rest of the transport is done in bullock-carts, or, in the case of firewood from Khanpur, on camels. In a certain number of forests the villagers have rights of grass-cutting, grazing, lopping, or gathering of dead wood over defined areas. Other areas also are open to grazing or grass-cutting on payment, and leases for these purposes are sold to the residents of the adjoining villages at moderate rates. And on all trees felled in the forests the villagers are paid

seignorage fees at rates calculated at half the net profits on the sales, and ranging from 10 rupees on an ash, 6 rupees on a walnut, and 5 rupees on a deodar, to 1 rupee on a maple or a chestnut.

Offences in Reserved Forests.—Fires occur most frequently in the *chir* and fuel reserves, but they have decreased sensibly in recent years. In 1905-1906 only 221 acres were burnt, and in 1904-1905, 480. It is often impossible to decide whether they are accidental or intentional. If the latter, the motive is usually to obtain a better supply of grass, which the pine-needles or the thick brushwood prevents from growing. Other forest offences, such as unauthorized fellings, appropriation of wood, or grazing without permission, are fairly numerous (702 were reported in 1905-1906), and it is inevitable that there should always be some friction between the Forest Department and the villagers, as nothing can ever make the reservations or the subordinate staff engaged in their protection popular, or prevent an occasional defiance of the law.

Income of the Reserved Forests under the Deputy Conservator.—The reserved forests more than pay their way. In 1905-1906 the receipts amounted to 150,760 rupees, and the expenditure to 93,730 rupees, leaving a surplus of 57,030 rupees, and in the previous three years the average surplus was 32,493 rupees. The receipts have risen largely of late years, owing chiefly to the stringent measures taken to stop illicit sales from village forests, and a larger resulting demand for timber from the reserves. And with the increased exploitation that is in prospect they are likely to rise yet further.

Management of Agror Forests.—In the reserved forests of Agror the system of management enforced by the Deputy Commissioner is less strict. In fact, at present the people are only prohibited from cutting wood or cultivating land therein, and can graze cattle, cut grass, or collect firewood without interference.

Management of Village Forests, and Policy Pursued.—The Deputy Commissioner also supervises the management of the village forests, and it is this task that is the most troublesome of any of his duties; for while it is essential to prevent the entire denudation of the waste lands, in order to preserve a supply of timber, fuel, and grass for the wants of the villagers, and to lessen the temptation to encroach on the reserved forests, it is extremely difficult to induce the villagers to appreciate the point, or to have any regard for the interests of their posterity. They ask that they may be allowed to do what they will with their own, and they object strongly to Government interference. The policy that it has been thought advisable to pursue in these circumstances has varied considerably since annexation up to date, stringency at one time finding favour and leniency at another. It would be tedious to repeat all the vicissitudes, and it will suffice to say, that, as a result of the controversy and of the experiments that have been tried, certain propositions may be considered as established. These are that, if left to themselves, the villagers cannot be trusted to look after their forests, and that it is absolutely necessary, if those forests are to be preserved from rapid deterioration and eventual destruction, for Government to exercise a real and not a nominal supervision over them. And, on the other hand, that an elaborate system of protection is unworkable and out of the question; that the rules of management must be as simple and liberal as possible; and that we must try and carry the people some way, at any rate, along with us, by providing them with an easy means of satisfying their legitimate requirements in the way of wood or grass.

The system now in force is briefly as follows: In a number of villages containing the forests which it is most desirable to conserve a certain area, called 'protected waste,' or in the vernacular '*mahduda*,' has been set apart, and orders have been issued that no cultivation should

take place therein. In 1882, when such a demarcation was first made, the area protected amounted to 147,000 acres, spread over 299 villages; but this included a quantity of existing cultivation, and at the Second Regular Settlement it was found advisable to reduce it to 84,000 acres, distributed among 252 villages. Outside this area cultivation is unrestricted, though under the Hazara Forest Regulation the Deputy Commissioner has power to close it where it endangers the stability of the hill-side. The villagers may fell trees required for building purposes in both the protected and unprotected areas, the only condition being that they should report to the *patwari* and the *lambardar* their intention of doing so. On grazing and grass-cutting there are no restrictions, nor on the use of brushwood or dry wood for fuel purposes; but the sale of such wood or of timber is only permissible with the Deputy Commissioner's sanction. In practice the sale of firewood has been conceded almost universally, subject to the condition that it is brought into market in the form of head-loads only, but the sale of timber is very rarely allowed. Non-residents of a village, who have rights therein, have to obtain special sanction from the Deputy Commissioner to fell trees from its waste lands. The *lambardars* have been nominated as village forest officers under the Regulation, and are responsible to see that the above rules and other minor provisions are observed, and a special *Naib-Tahsildar* assists the Deputy Commissioner in the task of management and of preserving and improving the *guzaras* by afforestation and other means. The amendment of the Hazara Forest Regulation and the rules passed thereunder is now (1907) under consideration, but it is not likely that there will be any modification of the main lines of forest policy above indicated.

Income, Offences, and Fires.—No income worth mentioning is received by Government from village forests, for all the profits go into the pockets of the villagers;

but if trees are felled for sale, seignorage fees are payable to Government in the same way as they are payable to villagers in the case of reserved forests. Offences consist mainly in encroachments on protected waste and in illicit felling. As with reserved forests, fires have decreased in frequency of recent years. This may be partly due to the introduction of a system of regulated firings, whereby, under the direction of the Deputy Commissioner, certain areas are cleared of pine-needles each year, so as to allow the grass to grow.

Unclassed Forests.—Besides reserved and village forests, there are two unclassed forests owned by Government, and used mainly as grass preserves. They are the civil and military *rakh* of 807 acres on the hill immediately behind Abbottabad, and the Manakrai *rakh* north of Haripur at the southern end of a spur of the Tanawal hills; 498 acres of the former are in charge of the Military Department, the rest are controlled by the Deputy Commissioner.

Mines and Mineral Resources.—The metals and mineral products of the District are not, so far as is known, of any note or value. A few men earn a scanty livelihood by gold-washing on the banks of the Indus. Limestone is abundant all over the District. Coarse slate is found in several places, and is in much demand for tombstones, but it is not suitable for roofing purposes. Iron exists on the eastern slopes of Miran Jani and elsewhere. Here and there throughout the District carboniferous strata are to be found, and in the hills east of Abbottabad are one or two mines, whence a coal-dust used to be extracted which was made into bricks for fuel, but they are now no longer worked.

Arts and Manufactures.—The manufactures of Hazara are only of local importance. The principal one is the weaver's trade. Nearly every village has a few looms, the weavers of larger villages being generally the best. The manufacture consists mainly of the coarse garments

(*khaddar* and *susi*) which form the common clothing of the people. The finer productions are *lungis*, or turbans, and *silaras*, or sheets, worn by women. In the Mansehra tahsil there is a considerable manufacture of *pattu* cloth, which generally takes the form of blankets. The best *pattu* is said to be made in the villages of Bhogarmang and Data.

Hazara Phulkaris.—The Hazara *phulkaris* are noted, and with regard to them and other manufactures of the District the remarks of Mr. Lockwood Kipling, late principal of the Lahore School of Art, may here be reproduced from the old *Gazetteer* :

'The domestic art of silk embroidery on cotton articles of attire attains in this District to a higher quality than in any other part of the Province ' (*i.e.*, the Punjab before the separation of the Frontier province). 'In colour, line, and variety of stitch, the *phulkaris* sent to the Punjab Exhibition of 1882 from Hazara were voted the first place. The smaller scarves and bags in black or dark green cotton, with coloured silk, were more like Turkish embroidery than the ordinary Indian type of *phulkari*. There is no trade in these pretty fabrics, which form the occupation of the leisure of busy housewives. It is true that widows earn a little money by the needle, but their work is usually sold within the wide bounds of the family and its friends, and there is no production for the English market.

'*Silver Work.*—Silver is wrought here into necklaces and other articles, mostly consisting of plates cut out in a Persian cartouche form, made convex, and roughly embossed and graven, the ground being filled with an imitation of enamel in green or red. The effect is bold and handsome, though the work is undeniably coarse. An elephant necklace by an Abbottabad silversmith, Raja Singh, shown at the Punjab Exhibition, was a striking object, and was purchased for Lord Northbrook's collection of silver ornaments.

'*Wheaten Straw Basket-Work.*—Wheaten straw basket-work, similar in principle to the palm-leaf basket-work of Muzaffargarh, is here brought to some perfection. The straw is particularly bright and strong. The forms are suggested from those of earthen or metal vessels, and built up in rows of plaits, instead of being, as in ordinary basket-work, woven on a framework of ribs. The ware is suitable for card and waste-paper baskets, and for many domestic purposes. The people's baskets for bread are made of it. It is pretty in appearance, sufficiently durable, and very cheap.'

Commerce and Trade.—Though no figures can be given of the exports and imports of the District, the main articles of commerce can be stated. The chief imports are cloth, salt, tobacco, and grain. As before noted, the District is not self-supporting in a year of ordinary harvests, especially as large supplies have to be provided for the troops in Abbottabad and the Galis. Wheat, in particular, is imported in considerable quantities. The only grain exported to any extent is rice from Pakhli and Bakot. Of other crops, potatoes are sent to Murree and Rawalpindi, and turmeric and *gur* down country. Fruit of various sorts goes to the Rawalpindi District from the Haripur tahsil, as do walnuts and pears from the hillier tracts. From Mansehra comes the root of the valuable plant known botanically as *Aucklandia costus*, and in vernacular as *khut*, which is used by the Chinese for incense purposes. Some grows in Kagan, but much of it is brought from across the border. It is bought by traders at an average price of 12 rupees per maund. But the chief export trade of the District is in connexion with the live stock. Bullocks, sheep, and goats are purchased in large numbers for the supply of meat to Rawalpindi, Peshawar, or Murree. Wool, goat's hair, and hides, mainly from the Mansehra tahsil, are exported in great quantity, especially the last; but far the most valuable export is *ghi*, of which it has been estimated

that at least 5 lakhs of rupees' worth annually leaves the District.

Markets.—The chief centres of trade are Baffa in Mansehra, Nawanshahr in Abbottabad, and Haripur. The Baffa traders exploit Northern Pakhli, the valleys of Konsh and Bhogarmang, and the independent territories of Allai, Nandihar, and Kohistan. The Hindus of Nawanshahr have agents in all parts of the District, and extend their operations to Rawalpindi and Peshawar on the one side and Kashmir on the other. Haripur provides a market for the products of the rich Dor plain, and is an important link in the trade between Kashmir and the Punjab. Smaller centres of trade are numerous. Thus, in the Mansehra tahsil Balakot has dealings with the residents of the Kagan valley and Chilas; Garhi Habibullah Khan takes the trade of the Lower Kunhar valley and the Boi tract, and deals with Kashmir; Mansehra itself is the market for the greater part of Pakhli and the Garhian tract, and also has trade connexion with the circle tapped by Baffa. In the Abbottabad tahsil Dhamtaur is a rival to Nawanshahr, Abbottabad itself is an important local market on account of the troops, and each hill-station has its small bazaar. In Haripur, Serai Saleh, Tarbela, Bagra, Khanpur, and Kot Najibullah attract trade from the surrounding villages.

Means of Communication—Metalled Roads (Table I.).—The main line of the North-Western Railway runs not far from the southern boundary of the District, the nearest stations being Serai Kala, some 2 miles from the edge of the Khanpur Panjkatha, and Hassan Abdal, which is 8 miles from the boundary of the Haripur plain. The chief artery of communication in the District itself is the metalled tonga road that runs from Hassan Abdal through Haripur, Abbottabad, and Mansehra, crosses the Kunhar at Garhi Habibullah Khan, and joins the road from Rawalpindi to Srinagar at Domel. Except for some roads in the Abbottabad cantonment, and a 3-mile road

from Abbottabad to the artillery lines at Kakul, other metalled roads there are none. The total length of such roads inside the District is 84¼ miles.

Unmetalled Roads in Charge of Military Works Department.—The plain tracts are fairly well served by unmetalled roads, and it is possible to drive, though hardly with comfort, from Haripur to Serai Kala or Tarbela, and from Mansehra to Shinkiari or to the edge of the Siran on the Oghi road opposite Khaki. The above-mentioned roads are under the Military Works Department. The best roads in the hill tracts, such as that through Tanawal from Abbottabad to Darband, and those up the Kagan and Konsh valleys or to Thandiani and the Galis, are also supervised by that Department, who have altogether 403 miles of unmetalled roads in their charge. These hill roads are all too narrow for wheeled traffic.

Unmetalled Roads in Charge of District Board.—Of the 603 miles of unmetalled roads in charge of the District Board, the most important are the following:

From Haripur to the boundary of the Rawalpindi District, via Khanpur (24 miles).

From Haripur to Ghazi on the Indus, via Salam Khand (15 miles).

From Khanpur to Lora, via Kohmal (30 miles).

From Haripur to Mansehra, via Kachhi, Seri Sher Shah, Thathi, and Lassan (48 miles).

From the border of the Chach (Attock tahsil) to Kharkot (where it joins the Military Works Department road to Darband), via Ghazi, Tarbela, and Tawi (30 miles).

From Khanpur to Maksud on the Haripur-Abbottabad road (15 miles).

From Gora Gali, on the Rawalpindi-Murree road to Maksud, via Lora, Dakhan Pesar, and Langrial (35 miles).

From Nathia Gali to Kohala on the Jhelum and the Murree-Kashmir road (15 miles).

From Garhi Habibullah Khan to Kohala via Boi and Bakot (42 miles).

From Khote ki Qabar, 5 miles from Abbottabad on the Hassan Abdal road, to Gurini, via Rajoia, Sajkot, Mari, and Nagri Tutial (35 miles).

From Dhamtaur along the Dor to Havelian and the Abbottabad-Hassan Abdal road (14 miles).

From Changla Gali to Mari (12 miles).

From Jaba to Dhudial on the Murree-Shinkiari road (8 miles).

From Shinkiari to Sacha up the Bhogarmang valley (15 miles).

From Sacha to Battal across Sithan Gali (12 miles).

From Shinkiari, via Baffa, to Khaki on the Oghi road (12 miles).

These roads are feasible for pack animals, but in the hills are sometimes in too bad a state to be rideable. Away from them the path from one village to another is often but the roughest of tracks, and many villages are quite inaccessible except on foot. It will be understood, therefore, that, except on the Hassan Abdal-Kashmir road, where a constant stream of slow-moving bullock-carts with supplies for Abbottabad and Srinagar evokes the anathemas of vituperative tonga-drivers, there is very little wheeled traffic in the District. Off the main road the transport is done by donkeys, ponies, mules, camels, and bullocks, or by coolies. With a railway from Serai Kala to Kashmir, via Abbottabad and Garhi Habibullah Khan, such as has been projected, the communications of the District would, of course, be revolutionized, and the facilities of commerce greatly increased. But with a District that has no manufactures of note, and comparatively little surplus produce, it would be rash to anticipate any considerable expansion of trade.

Rest-houses, Distances, and Rates of Carriage (Tables XXIX. and XXX.).—The District is well supplied with dak-bungalows and rest-houses, a list of which will be

found in Table XXIX. at the end of this volume. It is followed by Table XXX., which is a polymetrical table of distances ; and in Appendix V. the regulations in force with regard to rates of carriage from stage to stage, coolie hire, etc., are given.

Postal Arrangements (Tables XXXI. and XXXII.).—Most of Hazara is in the Peshawar postal division. The head post-office, a second-class one, is at Abbottabad, where there are two deliveries in the day—one from the Lahore and one from the Peshawar direction—and there are two corresponding dispatches. There are fifteen sub-offices besides, but of these seven are in the hill-stations, and are only open in the hot weather, and the hill cantonment of Barian, which is one of them, is really in the Rawalpindi District. There are twenty-seven branch offices in the summer, and twenty-four in the winter. Of these, five, being near Murree, are included in the Rawalpindi circle. There are telegraph-offices at Abbottabad, Haripur, Mansehra, Baffa, and Oghi, and in the summer at all the hill-stations except Thandiani. The village directory of the District, as revised at the Second Regular Settlement, shows how the villages are served.

Famines.—Hazara suffered great scarcity in the memorable and widespread famine of 1783, which affected it with the same severity as the rest of Northern India. Grain sold at 3½ to 4½ sers per rupee, and the District is described as almost depopulated. Neither the famines of 1860-1861, nor the scarcity of 1869-1870, extended to the District. In the *kharif* of 1878, however, there was a very severe drought in the hilly tracts, which caused much distress. Over 20,000 rupees of revenue were suspended, and famine conditions were virtually established. But abundant harvests in 1879-1880 put the people on their feet again. The District was not seriously affected by the Punjab famines of 1896-1897 and 1899-1900, though the crops failed in certain tracts, and 3,000 rupees or so of revenue were suspended on each occasion. In

1902 another failure of crops in the unirrigated tracts of the plains and lower hills led to a suspension of 5,600 rupees. But recovery was rapid in each case, and a remission of revenue on account of scarcity has never been found necessary. In fact, it may be said that Hazara is almost immune from the chances of a serious famine, and no scarcity, however great, will cripple the resources of the people for more than a very short period.

CHAPTER IV

REVENUE AND ADMINISTRATION

Administrative Subdivisions.—For administrative purposes the District (exclusive of Feudal Tanawal) is divided into the three tahsils mentioned in the first chapter, with head-quarters at Mansehra, Abbottabad and Haripur respectively. Each tahsil is for police purposes divided into *thanas*, with head-quarters at the following places: In the Mansehra tahsil, Mansehra, Balakot, Shinkiari, Oghi, and Garhi Habibullah Khan (the last including some villages in the Boi tract of the Abbottabad tahsil); in Abbottabad, Abbottabad, Dunga Gali (in the hot weather), Nara, Bakot, Lora, and Sherwan; in Haripur, Haripur, Khanpur, Tarbela, Ghazi, and Kirpilian. To maintain the land records there is a staff of 187 *patwaris*, who are supervised by 13 field *kanungos*, and the District is mapped out into 186 *patwari* and 13 *kanungo* circles. For the 914 village estates there are 1,642 village headmen, whose chief business, there being so little crime, is to collect and pay in the revenue.

District Staff.—The whole District is in charge of a Deputy Commissioner, who resides at Abbottabad. The staff to assist him at head-quarters ordinarily consists of a District Judge, a Treasury Officer, and a Revenue Extra-Assistant Commissioner, all full-powered magistrates; at each tahsil there are a Tahsildar and a Naib-Tahsildar, with more limited magisterial powers. A Naib-Tahsildar is also stationed at Dunga Gali in the hot weather to see to the requirements of the hill-stations.

The police are in charge of a Superintendent of Police, the Government forests of a Deputy Conservator of Forests, and the hospitals and medical administration of a Civil Surgeon. There is also a Commandant of the Border Military Police at Oghi, who is a European officer with magisterial powers when such is available, and there is the special Naib-Tahsildar to look after the village forests, to whom reference is made in the previous chapter. There are at present (1907) two honorary magistrates in the District—Sultan Muhammad Khan Tanaoli, the *jagirdar* of Bir, and Muhammad Aman Khan, the *jagirdar* of Khalabat.

Changes of Area and Administrative Divisions.—When Hazara came under British rule in 1849 it included the hill tracts in the east of the Rawalpindi District, comprising 270 villages. These tracts were transferred to Rawalpindi in 1850, along with twenty-eight villages on or near the Harroh, south of the Gandgar range. In 1860 the village of Kamilpur was transferred from the Attock tahsil of the Rawalpindi District to the Haripur tahsil. Up to 1874 the District had been divided between two tahsils, Haripur and Mansehra, but in that year the Abbottabad tahsil was made up out of the southern portion of Mansehra and the eastern portion of Haripur. In 1893 the Thoba, or, as it is now called, the Barian, hill cantonment, south of Khaira Gali, was transferred to the Rawalpindi District. In 1900 the whole of the Attock tahsil was added to Hazara as a fourth tahsil, but in 1901, on the formation of the North-West Frontier Province, it was restored to Rawalpindi and the Punjab, and the rest of Hazara became one of the five Districts of the new province, being the only one that lies to the east of the Indus. Proposals for transferring the Khanpur and Lora tracts to the Punjab have since been mooted, but they have come to nothing.

Civil and Criminal Justice (Tables XXXV. and XXXVI.).—The people of Hazara have a bad reputation

for litigiousness, and their tendency in this direction was aggravated by the faulty condition of the records of the First Regular Settlement, which encouraged fictitious claims, and made the issue even more a matter of speculation than usual. A stimulus of a different kind was afforded by the operations of the Second Regular Settlement, for they revealed discrepancies and errors in the old record, of which the parties had previously been unaware, and brought to a head many disputes which could only be decided finally in the courts. This explains why the year 1906 shows more civil and revenue litigation than any previous year, the civil cases totalling up to 5,536, and the revenue to 6,817. It is to be hoped that as things settle down, and the new and more accurate records are accepted as superseding the old, these high figures will diminish.

The records of criminal justice (Table XXXIV.) tell a different tale. Here the files of the courts are very light. In 1906 there were 1,661 cases of all kinds brought to trial, a decrease on the previous year of 60, and on the year before that of 173, and a large number of these were for petty offences under the Forest, Municipal, and Police Acts. Cases of theft and of receiving stolen property numbered 136 in all, and the most serious item consisted of 41 cases of murder and culpable homicide, which is considerably above the average. Were it not for these occasional outbreaks of violence, and also for the troublesome, though usually petty, character of forest offences, Hazara, so far as the criminal administration was concerned, would be one of the easiest Districts to manage. It should be added that the whole District is under the Frontier Crimes Regulation ; trial by *jirga* is pretty frequently resorted to, and the results are fairly satisfactory.

Village Communities and Tenures.—The tenures in Hazara are singularly interesting. When the District came under British rule, we found a set of actual rights,

founded upon recent usurpation, existing side by side with traditions of a second set of conflicting rights founded upon usurpation of older date. The later usurpation was too fresh, and the traditions of earlier usurpation too vivid, to allow us, either on grounds of equity or public policy, entirely to disregard the latter, and the whole matter was so peculiar and important that it was deemed advisable to have recourse to special legislation on the subject. Before describing, therefore, the existing tenures, it is necessary first to explain the state of rights in land as they stood at annexation, the manner in which they had grown up, and the method adopted in dealing with them.

Origin of Proprietary Tenures.—The existing status of proprietary rights is the outcome of the political influences of three separate eras: the Durani rule from A.D. 1747 to 1818, the Sikh rule from A.D. 1819 to 1849, and the British rule from A.D. 1849 to 1874. Excepting the Gakhars and the Gujars, few of those who now own the soil can carry their title back beyond the beginning of the eighteenth century. Dhunds, Karrals, Pathans, Tanaolis, and Swathis were then all equally aggressors—some, like the Dhunds and Karrals, being engaged in emancipating themselves from the domination of their old lords, the rest playing the rôle of invaders, and driving out or subordinating to themselves the weaker families whom they found in the country. The right thus asserted or acquired by the strong over the weak was popularly termed *wirsa* or *wirasat*—that is, 'heritage,' and its possessor was called the *waris*, or heir. In fact, the *waris* was the last conqueror. In the popular conception this right was complete against every one except the Moghal or Durani ruler. It did not exclude the idea of payment of the land revenue customarily due to the State throughout India, but, with this exception, the *waris* or community of *warisan* asserted their right to do what they willed with the land, and to treat all other occupants as mere vassals or tenants-at-will.

Privileged Tenants.—But the circumstances of the country were such that the tenure of the land did not entirely agree with the popular conception. The rights of the *warisan* were based, not on law, but on popular power in its rudest form. It was convenient, therefore, for them to associate with themselves on privileged terms any strong body of tenantry whom they found in the country, or were able to locate in it. Such were the relations of the Mishwanis to the Utmanzais, of the Awans of the Garhian tract to the Tanaolis, and of the Awans in the villages on the fringe of the Pakhli plain to the Swathis. Their position, though it possessed no admitted right, was superior to that of mere tenants, inasmuch as they paid little or no rent, and were rarely disturbed in their holdings. Its principal incident was the liability to military service, and they were commonly located on the border, where neighbouring tribes disputed the right to the land. They were called *lakband*—that is to say, men who gird their loins (*lak*) in the service of the *warisan*. In other cases a *waris* tribe would content itself with the rich lands of the valley, and leave the tenants of the hill hamlets almost undisturbed, only demanding light rents and petty services from them, such as the supply of wood and grass for winter use. The hill villages of the Jadun country, near Nawanshahr and Dhamtaur, are instances of this.

Changes introduced by Sikh Rule.—The Sikh conquest turned the tables on the *waris* classes, and crushed them by the same argument by which a century before they had crushed others. The Sikh rulers claimed the soil as the State's in a peculiar sense, asserting that they were sole lords thereof, and entitled to its full rent. If they allowed any class to intercept part of the full rent, and to pay only a proportion of that rent to the State, they did so merely on grounds of expediency. As soon as and wherever they were strong enough, they levied from all classes alike the full amount. The rents thus levied were

those which the *warisan* had before taken from their tenantry; whereas before the tenantry alone paid these rents, now the *waris* classes paid them too. If circumstances permitted, the Sikh officials levied these rents by direct management; if it was inconvenient to levy the rents by direct management, they farmed them. The result in either case was the complete temporary destruction of the dominion of the old *warisan*. Their rights survived by sufferance only in villages which the Sikhs gave them in *jagir*, or in parts of the country where it did not suit them to interfere directly—as, for instance, the Tarkheli tracts on the Indus, the Boi *jagir*, the Swathi chief's *jagir*, Agror, Bhogarmang, and Kagan. These are only the principal instances; there were numerous other pettier cases, in which for various reasons and by various pretexts the *waris* body held their own more or less completely. But the general result of the Sikh rule was to destroy the old tenures of the country, and to substitute for them a system under which every one alike held his land at the will of the State, and on condition of his paying its full rent. Neither by temper nor by habit were the *waris* classes fitted to submit to such a change. They lacked the agricultural industry that enabled the tenant classes to pay full rent, and their spirit resented their degradation to the same level as their tenantry. But, as will be described in the chapter on the history of the District, the swords of the Sikh rulers made good their claim to rule the country, and while many of the *waris* classes fled, outlawed by the share which they had taken in opposing the Sikhs, or being unable to fall in with the new order of affairs under alien rulers, the majority necessarily accepted their altered condition.

Khad, or Prescription.—The status growing up out of this confusion began to be popularly described by the term *khad*. The idea conveyed by this word corresponds nearly with what we term *prescription*; it was applied

to the land which a *waris* actually retained or held during the confusion of Sikh rule, in opposition to the *wirasat* or heritage to which, under the antecedent status of the country, he was entitled. Thus one of the old *warisan* would say : 'I will surrender my *khad*, if you restore to me my *wirasat*.' Or, as used by one of the inferior classes originally excluded from the *waris* body and treated as tenants, the term *khad* indicated his claims to a right of occupancy on the score of his long tenure. If, under Sikh rule or during Summary Settlement, such an occupant had held his land in direct relations with the State free of the dominion of the old *waris*, he would put a still further meaning on the term *khad*, and use it to express his right to resist the re-introduction of the old *waris*, or, in other words, his right to be himself treated as proprietor of the land in his possession.

Treatment of Warisan at the Summary Settlements.—When Major Abbott was deputed to Hazara in 1847, and gave to the country for the first time the great benefit of a moderate assessment of the State's demand, numbers of the old *waris* classes, who had fled the country or relinquished the management of their lands under the Sikh rule, returned, and claimed back their estates. In fact, when the people saw our anxiety to deal fairly with the old proprietary classes of the country, there was hardly a claim which the Sikh Government had ignored or overridden for thirty years past that was not now pressed again on Major Abbott. Numbers of these claims were decided, most of them without any judicial record. In those days, when so much of the culturable land was waste, there was not that difficulty in re-admitting an old member to his former place in the village community that there was later, when most of the culturable land had been broken up. But both in 1847, when Major Abbott made his first Summary Settlement, and in 1852, when he made the second Summary Settlement, his time was limited, and the calls on his attention were multi-

farious. As far as possible, he set aside the old Sikh farmers, and placed the village leases in the hands of the old proprietors ; but there remained many claims undecided, and not a few cases—as in the Haripur plain, the Bagra and Khanpur tracts, and other villages elsewhere—in which it was not possible to affirm that the lessees had any antecedent title to the ownership of the lands leased to them.

Adjudication of Claims at the First Regular Settlement.—It was felt that the ordinary civil courts could not deal with claims of this sort in a satisfactory manner, and the Board of Administration issued orders under which the greater number of them were left pending till the Regular Settlement. A beginning was made with these cases in 1862, when the abortive Settlement operations conducted by Major Adams and Coxe were started, but it was during the First Regular Settlement of the years 1868 to 1874 that most were disposed of. By certain Settlement rules passed in 1870, and given the force of law, the Settlement courts were empowered to investigate and deliver an award on all such claims, and, if they thought fit, to restore the status of the year preceding the introduction of Sikh rule, the period of limitation for suits of this kind, which elsewhere in the Punjab was twelve years previous to annexation, being extended so as to include this date.

The number of suits brought with regard to property in land in these circumstances was about 12,000, of which 2,000 were decided before the Regular Settlement began. The main principle upon which the decisions were based was to support the status of the Summary Settlements as far as possible, and, where a claim was admitted, to decree it in such a manner as would cause the least disturbance to existing conditions. The cases were few in which a member of the old *waris* class was denied all footing in his old heritage ; on the other hand, short of refusing such men a moderate recovery of their former status, the Settlement authorities maintained in a privileged position,

as owners or as hereditary tenants, those who obtained possession during Sikh rule, and had continued to hold the land after annexation.

Nature of Proprietary Tenures.—The village tenures of Northern India are commonly divided into three classes, *zamindari*, *pattidari*, and *bhaiachara*. Those of Hazara mostly belong in their origin to the first two—that is to say, the villages, when they came into possession of the ancestors of their present proprietors, were held either by a single owner or a single family of owners in individual shares (*zamindari*), or they belonged to one or more sections of a single tribe, who divided the land among themselves on the basis of ancestral or customary shares, and paid their revenue in the same fashion (*pattidari*). At the First Regular Settlement this system was in a great measure maintained, and the revenue was distributed accordingly. But there were a few villages in which possession was already the measure of right (*bhaiachara*), and in a number of others the proprietors elected to pay thenceforward on the basis of possession and not of shares. At the Second Regular Settlement the great majority of villages agreed to distribute the revenue on the lines of actual possession, and thus became *bhaiachara*, if they were not so already. Many still retain a large area of village common, or *shamilat deh*, which in the hills is especially valuable, but, as noted in the previous chapter, there is an increasing tendency to partition this among the proprietary body. Such partition, if it takes place, is now usually on the basis of the revenue which each proprietor pays on his private property, and not on ancestral or customary shares; and, if the *shamilat* remains joint, its income is distributed over the proprietors in the same fashion.

Malik Qabzas.—Another tenure which here deserves notice is that of the *malik qabza*. He is a proprietor with restricted rights, for though he has full control over his own holding, and is liable for the revenue assessed thereon,

he is not entitled to any proprietary share in the common land of the village. He is often of a different tribe from that of the full proprietor—sometimes a *kamin* or a Hindu—and has acquired his footing in the village by purchase or by favour. The rights in the *shamilat*, especially in hill villages with abundant waste, being valuable and jealously guarded, it is seldom that an outsider can obtain a complete proprietary title. Even a full proprietor purchasing from another may not be able to acquire the share in the *shamilat* attaching to the land transferred to him, and will be recorded only as a *malik qabza* so far as that land is concerned. There is thus a continual tendency for the *malik qabza* tenures to increase in number, and in the Abbottabad tahsil alone there were nearly 6,000 such at the Second Regular Settlement as against 900 at the first. It may be added that in a few villages there are persons akin to *malik qabzas* who are called *guzarakhors*. These are usually 'poor relations' of the owner or owners of the village, who have been given a small plot of land for their *guzara* or maintenance. They have no rights in the *shamilat*, except in the Khanpur tract, where the Gakhar *guzarakhors* have a share proportionate to the amount of land in their possession.

Occupancy Tenants.—The questions affecting the position and rights of the non-proprietary cultivators of the soil (*ghairwaris*, *khadi*, or *muzarea*) were hardly less important than those affecting the proprietary body, and the suits dealing with their claims, which were decided during the First Regular Settlement, numbered no less than 17,000. At the time that Settlement operations commenced the discussions which led to the enactment of the Punjab Tenancy Act of 1868 were at their height. It was felt that if the definitions of occupancy right contained in Section 5 of that Act were applied, as they stood, to Hazara, a large body of cultivators who were fairly entitled to such rights would be excluded. The Hazara tenants were a deserving class; their task of

breaking up the waste in the villages where they settled had been, in the hills at any rate, a very difficult and laborious one ; they had stuck to their lands through all vicissitudes and under all changes of rulers and masters ; their status in many cases was in practice little different from that of proprietor, and they were as a rule inoffensive and well disposed. Accordingly, a special Regulation (3 of 1873) was passed, in which a broader interpretation of the term ' right of occupancy ' was given than in the Punjab Act, the most important modification being a clause awarding the right to every tenant who either through himself or through his predecessors had continuously occupied his holding from a period anterior to the Summary Settlement of 1847. Further, a distinction was made between tenants of this class whose occupation had continued undisturbed from a time previous to the famine of A.D. 1783 and those whose period of occupation commenced after that date, and it was laid down that in enhancement suits, while the rents of the former should not be raised beyond a limit that was 30 per cent. less than what was payable by tenants-at-will, the limit in the case of the latter should be 15 per cent. As a matter of fact, the date which the Settlement officer intended to propose was A.D. 1818, when the Sikh rule commenced, and 1783 was fixed under a misapprehension; but the mistake was not material, since any tenure that began in the time preceding Sikh rule was recorded as dating from before the famine.

When the Act of 1868 came under revision, the Regulation of 1873 was subjected to a similar process, and with the new Punjab Tenancy Act was issued the Hazara Tenancy Regulation (13 of 1887), which is still in force. The definitions of occupancy right were assimilated fairly closely to those of the Act, but the important clause which referred to the Summary Settlement of 1847, and under which the large majority of occupancy tenants in the District have acquired their rights, was maintained

in all essential particulars. And in the section providing for enhancement of rents a maximum *malikana* of 6 annas in the rupee was fixed for 'before the famine' tenants, as against 12 annas for those that were 'after the famine.'

Sikh Revenue System.—The revenue history of Hazara begins with the Sikh occupation in 1818, for the Duranis, who preceded the Sikhs, had no organized system, and merely seem to have collected what they could on their way through the District to and from Kashmir, and to have conciliated the leading men in the more outlying parts by large *jagir* grants. The Sikh method of assessment is thus described by Major Abbott :

'The whole of the Hazara (one or two small *taluqahs* excepted) is assessed in a fixed rent which is supposed to be half the gross produce, but varies in reality very greatly in different *taluqahs*' (*i.e.*, according to their accessibility and the amount of control exercised over them), 'not amounting in some to more than a third ; over and above this, under the title of *rasum* and *nazrana*, about 15 per cent. was taken previous to my coming ; and the two laws, Musalman and Sikh, prevailing in the land, left a wide gap for exactions in the name of fines, the Government interfering in all the domestic concerns of the subject. . . . The system here has been to over-assess the country, and to bribe the *maliks* into submission by petty grants of ploughs, mills, arable land, etc.'

Statistics of the Sikh assessment are supplied by the leases given out by Diwan Mulraj, who was Governor of Hazara from 1843 to 1846, and who seems to have made considerable improvements in the organization of the revenue system. In the report of the First Regular Settlement it is stated that his assessments were more judicious and moderate than those of his predecessors, but Major Abbott's diaries throw some doubt on this point, as he speaks of villagers who had fled from the wholesale cruelty of Diwan Mulraj, and of tracts that he

had burned and plundered. And he also notes that on comparing statements of actual collection in the Diwan's time with older leases in the possession of *zamindars* he finds that an already heavy assessment was raised throughout Hazara from 8 to 25 per cent. by an order from the Darbar in 1842 and 1844, so as to meet the increased expenses of the army.

First Summary Settlement.—But whether Mulraj's assessment was heavier or lighter than what preceded it, there is no doubt that it pressed very hardly on the people, and Major (then Captain) Abbott, who, on the rendition of Hazara by the Maharajah of Kashmir to the Sikh Darbar in 1847 in exchange for other territory, was deputed to make the First Summary Settlement, was hailed by them as their deliverer. He was directed to reduce the standard of the State's demand from one-half to one-third, and he was allowed to go below the latter if the circumstances of the case warranted a more lenient assessment. The actual method followed seems to have been to ascertain the sums levied by the Sikh Government in the preceding years, and, after inquiry into the circumstances of each village, to assess on the average 15 per cent. lower than the previous payments. The result was that, exclusive of the cesses above referred to, which were abolished altogether, the Sikh demand was lowered from 2,81,853 rupees to 2,35,933 rupees, and the relief given to the people was considerable.

Second Summary Settlement.—The leases of the First Summary Settlement were granted for a period of three years, and towards the close of 1851, Hazara, along with the rest of the Punjab, having been annexed by the British Government in the interim as a result of the Second Sikh War, Major Abbott obtained the permission of the Board of Administration to revise his assessments. This course was rendered the more necessary by the great fall in the price of grain which had taken place since 1847, rendering further reductions advisable in the plain

tracts of Lower Hazara; while, on the other hand, a large increase in the cultivation of Pakhli and some of the hill tracts justified an enhancement of the revenue in those quarters. The net result of Major Abbott's proceedings was to raise the revenue in 343 estates, to reduce it in 176, and to maintain it unaltered in 364, and the total assessment was reduced from 2,35,933 rupees to 2,32,834 rupees, or by 1 per cent.

Abortive Assessments of Majors Adams and Coxe.—The Second Summary Settlement lasted for twenty years, during which period the revenue was collected with great ease. An attempt was made to revise it in 1862-1863 by Majors Adams and Coxe, as before noted, but their assessments were never sanctioned. It is worth remarking, however, that though they assumed the State's share as representing one-sixth of the gross produce, whereas Major Abbott assumed one-third, or perhaps more nearly one-fourth, and though they did not take into account any rise in prices, the assessments which they proposed enhanced the total of the First Summary Settlement by 5½ per cent. With all due allowance for the untrustworthiness of the data, this is striking evidence of the extent to which the cultivated area must have increased as a result of settled rule and a lenient revenue.

First Regular Settlement.—The First Regular Settlement was started by Captain Wace in 1868, and completed in 1874, the new assessments being introduced with effect from the *kharif* of 1872. The whole District was divided into assessment circles and measured by *patwaris*, and an elaborate record of rights was prepared. So far as can be ascertained, the measurements were not, as a rule, on the plane-table system. The usual course appears to have been to obtain an outline of the village boundary from the Survey Department, which between the years 1865 and 1869 was engaged on the Revenue Survey of the District, and then to plot in the fields with the help of a chain. A *khasra*, *khewat*, and other papers, were prepared in

the forms then prescribed. The nominal assessment guides were three—viz., an estimate of one-sixth of the value of the gross produce, soil rates, and plough rates. But none of these were reliable. Inaccurate areas and crop returns, and very rough calculations of yield, vitiated the produce estimate ; the soil rates were more or less guesswork, and, in most instances, not based on any direct deduction from cash rents ; and plough rates are at best an unsatisfactory guide. Moreover, in a District of such varied features as Hazara, even with the most accurate returns, it would be dangerous to aim at any very marked uniformity of rates. In his actual assessments Captain Wace accordingly discarded his standards in many instances, and went more by what a village had been paying under previous settlements, or by his own or his subordinates' impression of its revenue-paying capacity, than by the figures with which his produce, soil-rate, and plough-rate estimates supplied him. The result was a total assessment of 2,99,661 rupees for land and 8,733 rupees for mills (which in the Summary Settlements had been included in the land assessment), or a total of 3,08,394 rupees altogether, representing an increase of 32 per cent. on that of the Second Summary Settlement.

Working of First Regular Settlement.—No apology was needed for this enhancement. The peace and security ensured by British rule had brought prosperity in their train. There had been a wide extension of the cultivated area, communications had been improved, and prices of grain and other produce had risen very considerably. And during the thirty years for which the Settlement was sanctioned, little difficulty was experienced in the realization of the demand then imposed. It is true that owing to defective statistics, misleading information, or incorrect deductions from the figures of previous Settlements, there was much inequality in the distribution of the demand, an inequality which was aggravated by the changes in soil, cultivated area, population, and miscel-

laneous income that took place in the period above named; but in most cases the assessment was a moderate one, and, where it was for the circumstances of the time perhaps unduly severe, the severity was subsequently mitigated to a large degree by continued extension of cultivation and by the rise in prices, and there are very few instances where it can be said that the prosperity of a village was adversely affected.

Second Regular Settlement—Revision of the Record.—In 1899 the Revised or Second Regular Settlement of the Agror valley was entrusted to an Extra-Assistant Commissioner, Sardar Muhammad Sarfaraz Khan, and was completed in the following year. The Second Regular Settlement of the rest of the District begun in October, 1900, and was completed in May, 1907. The old records were very defective, for the village maps were often extremely inaccurate, and the revenue papers were full of mistakes and not up-to-date. This makes it the more surprising that, by one of the Settlement rules passed at the time of the First Regular Settlement and having the force of law, a finality and conclusiveness attached to them which no records in any other District possessed. No time was lost in repealing this rule by a regulation of the Government of India, which gave to them only the ordinary presumption of truth that Punjab land records elsewhere convey. A lengthy and radical revision was then undertaken. Except the Government forests and some waste areas at the head of the Kagan and Bhogarmang valleys, where the Revenue Survey map was copied, the whole District was measured, the plains on the square and the hills on the triangulation system, the records were thoroughly overhauled and written anew, and over 300,000 mutations were attested.

Revision of Assessment Circles.—Pari passu with the revision of the record went the revision of the assessment. The District was mapped out into assessment circles, which, as they at present stand (for they were modified

considerably between the beginning and the end of Settlement operations), follow in their grouping certain fairly well marked physical divisions. Thus, firstly and secondly, we have the irrigated and the unirrigated plain tracts ; thirdly, the country at the base of the hills and on the edge of the plains ; fourthly, the lower hills and the valleys in between ; fifthly, the higher hills and valleys. The first group comprises three circles in Haripur—Abi I., Abi II., and Khari ; and one in Mansehra, Maidan Pakhli. Abi I. is the upper portion of the Haripur plain, which is among the richest irrigated tracts of the province ; Abi II. has three parts, one being the north-western portion of the Haripur plain, which receives the tail end of the Dor irrigation, another the country between this and the Indus, which is watered by the Siran, and a third the Khanpur Panjkatha. The soil is not so rich as in Abi I., and some villages suffer occasionally from a deficiency of water, but for all that the circle is a very fertile one. The Khari circle is the strip of land along the Indus facing the Swabi tahsil of the Peshawar District. It has some excellent well irrigation. Maidan Pakhli is the levellest portion of the Pakhli plain, the main feature of which consists in the splendid rice-fields which the Siran waters.

The second group comprises the Maira circle of Haripur, which is the level expanse of *maira* soil at the lower end of the Haripur plain between the Gandgar and the Khanpur hills ; the Rash circle of Abbottabad, which is the plain of that name and its continuation, the Mangal tract ; and the Dhangar circle of the same tahsil, which is the north-eastern end of the Dor plain, and derives its name from the bad stony soil, locally known as *dhangar*, which is its chief characteristic. The third group consists of the Kandi circle in Haripur and the Pakhli Kandi circle in Mansehra (*kandi* meaning land lying at the base of hills), each a straggling, disjointed collection of villages surrounding the Haripur and Pakhli plains re-

spectively, and formed mostly of strips of *maira* land scored by ravines and sloping gently towards the plains. The fourth group comprises the Gandgar, Badhnak, and Dhaka Khanpur circles in Haripur, the Tanawal and Nara-Lora circles in Abbottabad, and the Pakhli Garhian and Kunhar circles in Mansehra. The Gandgar and Dhaka Khanpur circles are the tracts formed by the Gandgar and Khanpur hills. Badhnak is the name of that portion of the Tanawal hills which lies within the Haripur tahsil between the Indus and the Siran, and the circle includes a narrow strip of level land along the former river north of Tarbela known as Kulai. The Tanawal circle is so much of the Tanawal hills as lie within the Abbottabad tahsil, and Nara-Lora is the country traversed by the Dhund and Karral Harrohs for about 8 miles above their junction, and by the Nilan stream, which is one of their most important tributaries. It comprises the Nilan valley and the Lora and Dhan tracts, Nara being a village which lies on the edge of the last, and gives its name to the surrounding country. The Pakhli Garhian circle is in the main the northern portion of the Tanawal hills, which lies within the Mansehra tahsil, and is known as the Garhian *ilaqa*. The Kunhar circle is the valley of the Kunhar river between where it emerges from the Kagan glen at Balakot and where it enters the limits of the Abbottabad tahsil just below Garhi Habibullah Khan; the circle includes the villages situated on the hills on either flank. In the fifth and last group may be classed the Dhàka, Boi, and Bakot circles of Abbottabad, and the Konsh-Bhogarmang, Kagan, and Agror circles of Mansehra. Dhaka (that is, 'hilly country') is the name that has been given to the tract immediately to the west of the Dunga Gali range in which the Dor and Harroh rivers take their rise; Boi is the tract between the northern portion of that range and the Kunhar; and Bakot that between the southern portion and the Jhelum. The Konsh-Bhogarmang circle com-

prises the two valleys of Konsh and Bhogarmang to the north of the Pakhli plain. Through the latter the Siran, and through the former its tributary the Batkas, flow, and the villages are in most cases situated on either bank of these streams, with lands running up into the hills behind. The Kagan circle is the greater part of the valley of that name, which stretches for ninety miles or so up to the border of Chilas. In area it is roughly one-fourth of the District, but the cultivated portion is, relatively, very small, the rest being forest or grazing land. Last comes the Agror circle, which is formed by the Agror valley to the west of Pakhli.

Number and Character of Assessment Circles.—The number of assessment circles was thus twenty-two—viz., eight in Haripur, and seven each in the other two tahsils. This was a great reduction on the fifty-nine circles formed by Captain Wace, but it largely exceeds the average of most Districts. Even so, however, it was impossible to achieve the uniformity that the grouping in other Districts exhibits. Many of the circles in Hazara possess characteristics of other groups beside their own. Dhaka Khanpur has high hills as well as low, Dhangar has some first-class irrigation from the Dor, several of the Rash villages reach back into the hills of Tanawal or Dhaka, the villages at the base of the Konsh and Bhogarmang valleys approximate in character to those of Maidan Pakhli, the upper part of Kunhar is like the lower part of Kagan, and so on. Again, within the circles themselves, and especially the hillier ones, there are great variations. Thus Boi and Bakot vary in altitude between 3,000 and 9,000 feet, and in Tanawal, Badhnak, and Nara-Lora the lands of one village may lie in a hot valley and those of another on a cool ridge above, with a corresponding variety of agricultural conditions. The result was that deductions from the assessment data had to be framed and used with much caution, and in the distribution of the revenue ample allowance had to be made for the great

differences between village and village in one and the same circle.

Assessment Data.—The data aforesaid were prepared in the usual way. That is to say, after numerous experiments an estimate of the yield of each important crop on each class of soil was framed ; the average matured area of each crop on each soil was then ascertained, and a calculation made of the total gross produce of each circle. The value of this produce was estimated by multiplying the total yield of each crop into its assumed price per maund, and the value of the net share enjoyed by the proprietor was assumed to be that fraction of the produce on each soil which is usually taken by a landlord from a tenant-at-will after payments made to village menials from the common heap, or to reapers in the form of sheaves, have been deducted. Half of these net assets were then assumed as the revenue to which Government was theoretically entitled.

Results of Assessment.—As a matter of fact, however, the assessments recommended and imposed did not even approximate to the half net asset estimate. In a District of such varied conditions an estimate of this kind must in its nature be largely guesswork, and though endeavours were made to be, if anything, on the safe side, it was impossible to be very sure on the point. And, more than this, the enhancements over the previous assessments, which the calculations brought out, were so large that it was out of the question to put such a strain on the resources of the District. Accordingly, the assessments announced and distributed were very much below this standard. In Haripur the total new land revenue was fixed at 2,16,153 rupees, an increase of 51 per cent. on the previous assessment, and 62 per cent. of the estimated half net assets ; in Abbottabad it was 1,35,230 rupees, an increase of 70 per cent., and 47 per cent. of the half net assets ; and in Mansehra (with Agror included) it was 1,52,845, an increase of 102 per cent., and

53 per cent. of the half net assets. The total land revenue of the District thus amounted to 5,04,228 rupees, as against nearly 3 lakhs in the years preceding the Settlement, a rise of 69 per cent. It was 54 per cent. of the half net assets, and represented incidences of Re. 1.3.9 and Re. 1.1.4 per acre on the cultivated and matured areas respectively.

Distribution of Assessment.—The distribution of the new revenue over the villages was in Agror made by Sardar Muhammad Sarfaraz Khan, in Manshera by Captain Beadon, the Assistant Settlement Officer (who had also written the Assessment Report), and in Abbottabad and Haripur by the Settlement Officer. To assist them an estimate of the revenue leviable from each village according to revenue rates framed for each soil in the circle to which it belonged was made, and was adhered to or diverged from according to the particular circumstances of the village. So irregular was the incidence of the previous demand, and so diverse were the increases in the total revenue of the various assessment circles, that there was little uniformity in the enhancements taken in individual cases. In fact, they varied from nil to over 200 per cent., and it should be added that in sixty-six villages a reduction instead of an increase was sanctioned. Inside each village itself the revenue was distributed over the proprietors, in a few instances by ancestral or customary shares, but in the majority of cases by differential soil rates, which were more or less on the lines of the revenue rates. They varied from 18 or 20 rupees an acre on the rich garden lands of Haripur and Khanpur to 4 or 3 annas on the *rakkar* and *kalsi* soils of Badhnak, Tanawal, and Boi. And in many villages, where the waste was valuable, a rate of 6 pies an acre to 1 anna or more was put on the *bannas* and the hay-fields.

Cesses.—On the land revenue aforesaid two cesses, the local rate and the *lambardari* cess, are paid. The former amounts to Rs. 8.5.4, and the latter to 5 rupees on every

100 rupees of revenue. Up to 1905 the local rate cess was Rs. 10.6.8, and up to 1905 there was also a *patwar* cess of Rs. 6.4 or Rs. 6.7.4. The reductions in the cesses were effected by the orders of the Government of India.

Deferred Assessments.—To mitigate the suddenness and severity of the enhancements in a number of villages, orders were issued by Government deferring the realization of a portion of the assessment for periods of three, five, or seven years, as the case might be. The total thus deferred amounted to nearly 58,000 rupees, and it is not till the *kharif* of 1912 that the whole, or practically the whole, of the new demand will be levied.

Assessment of Water Mills.—Besides the land revenue, the water-mill assessments were also revised. These previously amounted to 11,421 rupees, and they were now raised to 20,411 rupees, or nearly double what they were before. For them also a rough half assets estimate was framed, and the actual assessment was about 62 per cent. of this. The amounts imposed ranged from 8 annas (in Agror) to 35 rupees (in Dhamtaur, near Abbottabad).

Tax on Goats.—Prior to the First Regular Settlement a tax on sheep and goats, called *ramashumari*, was levied on flocks of not less than fifty head in the Abbottabad and Mansehra tahsils. It was at the rate of Re. 1.12 per hundred on flocks owned by British subjects, and of Rs. 3.8 on flocks coming from independent territory or from Kashmir, and it was farmed out to contractors. The system led to great abuses, and was finally abolished by Government in 1873. At the Second Regular Settlement the extensive damage caused by goats to the vegetation in village wastes led to the conviction that something must be done to try and check the evil, and it was eventually decided to impose a tax or *tirni* of an anna per head on all goats belonging to villages that had any hill waste to speak of, and an extra anna on all

migratory flocks that come from across the border into the District, or that spend the summer in one portion of the District and the winter in another. The tax on the latter is collected as they are on their way down to their winter quarters, and the enumeration and assessment of non-migratory goats are carried out in the cold weather. The enumeration of the flocks and the collection of the tax must always be a difficult and rather unsatisfactory business, for not only is it almost impossible to make a correct count or to prevent evasions, but subordinate officials are given undesirable opportunities of harassing the people, and considerable discontent is aroused. Still, it may be admitted that, if the enumeration is properly supervised, the destruction which the goats commit is really the more serious evil of the two, and that if the village forests are to be saved the reduction of the numbers of these animals, or, at any rate, the prevention of their undue augmentation, is essential. In the year 1906-1907, the first year in which the tax was in full operation, the total realizations amounted to 16,196 rupees, of which migratory goats were responsible for 7,921 rupees and non-migratory goats for 8,275 rupees. The total number of goats enumerated was 195,753.

Jagirs.—The inaccessibility of many parts of Hazara, and the turbulent nature of its people, led naturally, in Durani and Sikh times, to the granting of large *jagirs* to the chiefs of the remoter tracts or of the more intractable tribes as an inducement to keep quiet and not molest the Government. And on annexation these grants were to a great extent confirmed, while others were added for services rendered to Major Abbott. Consequently, the assigned revenue of the District is very considerable, amounting, in fact, to 23 per cent. of the whole. Most of the bigger *jagirs* are in the form of the revenue of the whole or parts of villages, and not of fixed cash grants. There are also a number of political pensions, aggregating about 3,000 rupees in all.

Inams to Lambardars and Others.—Another form that the assignment of revenue takes in this District is the bestowal of *inams* on *lambardars* and others, in the shape of cash grants deducted from the revenue of a village before it is paid into the Treasury. At the First Regular Settlement the number of these *inams*, as fixed by the Settlement Officer, was 908, of which 294 were for life only, and 614 for the term of the Settlement. They aggregated nearly 14,000 rupees, or 4·5 per cent. of the total revenue. Few of them were for over 50 rupees, and a number were for small amounts of 5 rupees and less. At the Second Regular Settlement, as the *inams* fixed for the term of Settlement now came under revision, it was decided to abolish this policy of petty grants, a survival of Sikh times, which was of material benefit neither to the holder nor to Government, and to substitute a system of graded *inams*, to be called '*zamindari*' *inams*, which should be made fewer in number but greater in value. But to obviate hardship and heartburning, a certain number of existing *inams* were maintained as life *inams*, and it was ordered that on the death of their holders, but not till then, they should be added to the fund available for *zamindari inams*. The total *inam* grant, including both life and *zamindari inams*, was fixed at 13,000 rupees, or slightly over 2½ per cent. of the new revenue ; 4,736 rupees were, in the first instance, allotted for the life *inams*, and the rest was devoted to 143 *zamindari inams* ; but when all the life *inams* have fallen in there will be 250 *zamindari inams* altogether, divided into four grades of 25, 50, 75, and 100 rupees (or over) respectively. These *inams* will be subject to revision on the expiration of the Second Regular Settlement. As a general rule they are to be held by *lambardars*, but they can be granted to other leading agriculturists in special cases. They have no hereditary character, but in the case of *inams* held by *lambardars* due attention is to be paid to the claims of the deceased holder's heirs. The

duties of an *inamdar* are those laid down in the rules under the Punjab Land Revenue Act.

Inams to Village Institutions and other Grants.—*Inams* for the term of Settlement are also held by a few village institutions, which in most cases are noted Muhammadan shrines. They aggregate 340 rupees. And there are a number of garden *mafis* granted either at the First or Second Regular Settlement, the former holding good so long as the garden, or rather orchard, is maintained, and the latter having a duration of ten years from the date of the planting of the fruit-trees. In all cases the *mafi* takes the form of a remission of half the assessable revenue. Provision has also been made for the grant of ten years' remission of the revenue to all orchards planted during the currency of the Second Regular Settlement.

Alluvion and Diluvion.—Watered as the District is by numerous streams, and scored by nullahs which heavy rain makes the channels of destructive torrents, there is naturally a considerable amount of alluvion and diluvion every year. But, except on parts of the Siran, Dor, and Harroh rivers, the area affected is generally of small extent and value. Under the First Regular Settlement the assessment of land gained by alluvion, and the remission of the revenue on land lost by diluvion, were governed by what was called the 10 per cent. rule. That is to say, no fresh revenue was imposed, or existing revenue released, in any village unless the assessment of that village was thereby increased or reduced, as the case might be, by at least 10 per cent. This rule was apt to work very unfairly—Tarbela, for instance, lost by diluvion land assessed to some 490 rupees, but was not allowed a reduction because this fell short by 10 rupees of the required 10 per cent.—and at the Second Regular Settlement it was decided to abolish so arbitrary a limit. New rules, accordingly, were sanctioned, whose purport is to provide for the annual survey and record of land

gained by alluvion or lost by diluvion in those villages on the Siran, Dor, and Harroh where changes are most frequent, for the imposition or remission of the revenue on such land, and also for quadrennial measures of the same kind in all other villages of the District where alluvion or diluvion is likely to take place.

Enhancements of Cash Rents of Occupancy Tenants.—An important operation of the Second Regular Settlement was the enhancement of the cash rents of occupancy tenants. These being mostly lump sums fixed on the holdings, and therefore not in ordinary circumstances enhanceable except by agreement between the landlord and tenant, or by a suit in the Revenue Courts, it was feared that, unless special measures were taken when the new assessments were introduced, the whole District would be plunged into a turmoil of litigation. Accordingly, by another of the special Regulations with which Hazara is favoured, the Settlement Officer was empowered to adjust these rents to the new revenue by expressing them in terms of that revenue plus cesses and a certain number of annas in the rupee as *malikana*. Under this arrangement some 33,500 holdings were dealt with, of which 25,900 had their rents adjusted in this manner, and 7,600 were maintained as lump rents. The total enhancement in the rents was 44 per cent.

Tenants in Agror.—The tenants in Agror were treated on somewhat different lines from those of the rest of the District. At the First Regular Settlement the valley was exempted from the operation of the rules as to rights of occupancy, and consequently up to the Second Regular Settlement there were no occupancy tenants. It was then decided, under a special Regulation (4 of 1891), passed for the better administration of the valley, to give occupancy rights under Section 8 of the Tenancy Act to such of the Khan's tenants as could prove continuous possession for a certain number of years. The rents of all such tenants were fixed by the Settlement

Officer in terms of the revenue and cesses plus a *malikana* of 12 annas in the rupee.

Remissions and Suspensions of Revenue.—The occasions when revenue has been suspended on account of drought have been referred to in the preceding chapter. Remissions have occasionally been necessitated by damage resulting from locusts or hail, a submontane district of this kind with its constant thunder-storms being peculiarly subject to the latter visitation. The largest remission that has been granted on this account was for 3,500 rupees in the *rabi* of 1906, when a disastrous storm ruined the crops in portions of twenty-eight villages, mostly in the Dhangar circle. At the Second Regular Settlement, for the future guidance of the District officers, the District was classified into secure and insecure tracts, the latter comprising the whole or greater part of the Pakhli Garhian circle in Mansehra, the Boi, Dhaka, Dhangar, and Tanawal circles in Abbottabad, the Badhnak, Kandi, and Maira circles in Haripur, a few villages in the lower portion of Dhaka Khanpur, and one or two non-*jagir* villages in Gandgar. But it is not often that the need of suspensions in these tracts will have to be considered.

Miscellaneous Revenue—Excise and Income-tax (Tables XLI., XLII., XLIII., and XLIV.).—Of the miscellaneous revenue little need be said. Statistics of the collections are given in Table XLIV., one of the selected tables at the end of this volume. The sums realized on account of stamps, income-tax, and excise have, with hardly any exception, steadily increased during the last few years. The increase in the first is due in the main to the litigation which the operations of the Second Regular Settlement have caused ; the increase in the second to more stringent supervision and, perhaps, enhanced prosperity. In 1905-1906, apart from Government servants, there were 204 persons in the District paying income-tax on incomes of 1,000 rupees to 1,500 rupees a year, 81 on incomes of

1,500 rupees to 2,000 rupees, and 87 on incomes over 2,000 rupees, the total realized from such persons being 17,277 rupees. The average incidence of the tax per assessee was 44 rupees, and per 1,000 of the population 40 rupees. Additions to the Abbottabad garrison account mainly for the rise in the excise revenue. There are altogether nine places where country liquors and sixteen places (chiefly hotels and *dak* bungalows) where imported liquors are sold. The country-made liquor is obtained from distilleries in the Punjab and at Rosa in the United Provinces. Altogether twenty-six shops sell opium and charas. In the year 1905-1906, 2,356 gallons of country spirit, 10½ maunds of charas, and 14¼ maunds of opium, were consumed.

Local and Municipal Government (Tables XLV. and XLVI.).—There are four municipalities in the District—Abbottabad, Nawanshahr, Haripur, and Baffa. All the members are nominated, and the Deputy Commissioner is the *ex officio* president in each case. There is, besides, a Notified Area of the Nathia Gali and Dunga Gali locations combined. Here also the Deputy Commissioner is president, and the members are all Government officers. The chief source of income is octroi, except in the Notified Area, where it is miscellaneous taxes. For further information on the subject the Directory in Chapter IX. may be referred to.

The District Board consists of forty members, of whom eight are official and thirty-two non-official, the latter being all nominated. There used to be Local Boards in addition, but these were abolished in 1893. Up to 1903 the non-official members of the District Board from the Abbottabad and Haripur tahsils were appointed by a system of election, but, as was to be expected in so backward a District, the procedure was a pure farce, and in the year mentioned it was abolished. In 1905-1906 the income of the District Board was 39,000 rupees, and its expenditure 37,000 rupees, of which 10,600 rupees were on

education, 9,200 rupees on medical purposes, and 9,800 rupees on Public Works.

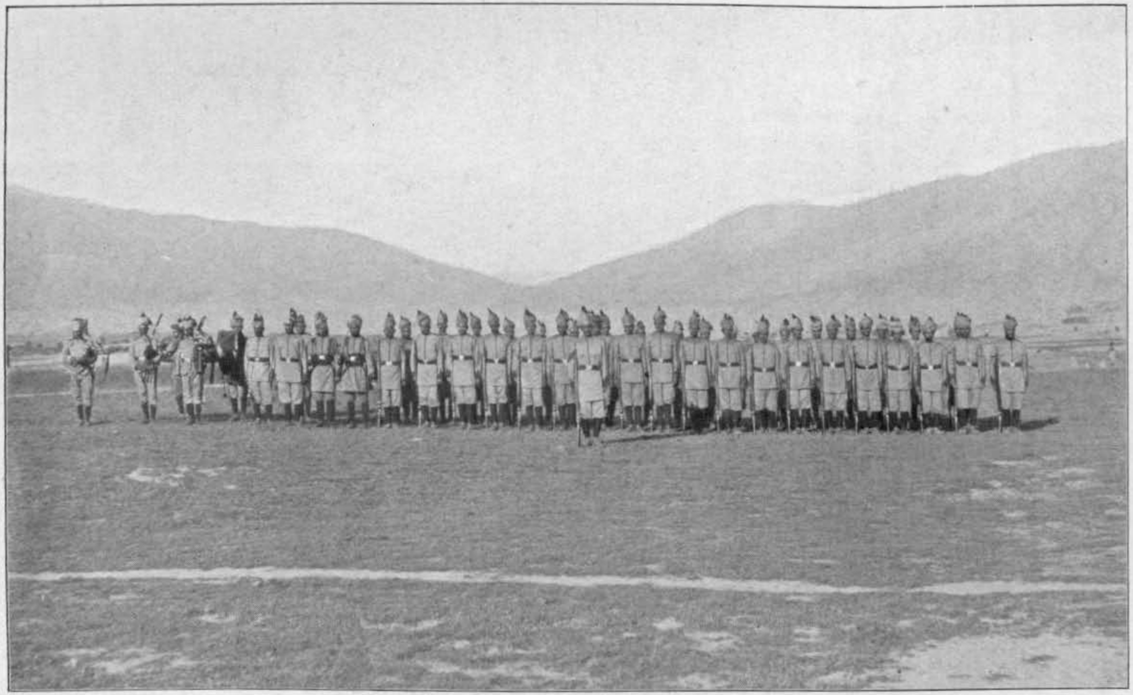
Public Works.—The Public Works of the District, apart from those controlled by the District and Municipal Boards, are supervised by an officer of the Military Works Department, who is stationed at Abbottabad, and is entitled the Assistant Commanding Royal Engineer. He has one or two Royal Engineer officers under him. As mentioned in Chapter III., besides numerous Government buildings, 84¼ miles of metalled and 403 miles of unmetalled road are in his charge. The most important works carried out of recent years have been the construction of a bridge for the tonga road across the Dor, and the building of the Chief Commissioner's house at Nathia Gali and of new barracks in Abbottabad and Kakul.

Army.—Abbottabad is the head-quarters of a brigade, and is garrisoned by four battalions of native infantry (the 5th and 6th Gurkha Rifles) and three native mountain batteries. A fourth native mountain battery is stationed at Kakul. In former days Abbottabad was the head-quarters of the General Officer commanding the Punjab Frontier Force. Its garrison consisted of the 5th Gurkha Rifles, another native infantry regiment, and one native mountain battery. So in late years it has increased considerably in importance as a military station. In the summer British mountain batteries are stationed at Bara Gali, Kalabagh, and Khaira Gali, and detachments of British infantry at Ghora Dhaka and Khanspur on the Dunga Gali range. These have all recently been included in the Abbottabad command.

Civil Police (Tables XLVII. and XLVIII.).—As described at the beginning of this chapter, the District is parcelled out into sixteen *thanas*, though that of Dunga Gali is in the cold weather merged in Nara. Ten of these are first class and six second class. There are also two first-class police outposts at Nathia Gali and Changla Gali, two second-class outposts at Kagan and at Dal (the ferry

below Tarbela), and three road-posts, at Sultanpur (half-way between Abbottabad and Haripur), Bagnotar (half-way between Abbottabad and Nathia Gali), and Thandiani. The total strength of the provincial police force is about 450 men. They are officered by a Superintendent of Police, an Inspector, 17 Sub-inspectors, and 58 head constables, and their lines and training-ground are at Abbottabad. There are 42 municipal police, 7 town watchmen, and 546 village watchmen. Though of the last-named there is an average of little more than one to every two villages, yet there is so small an amount of crime that more are hardly needed, and they have little to do but report the births and deaths and assist the *lambardars* in carrying out the orders of the District authorities. The policing of the District is, in fact, an easy matter. The cases reported to the provincial police in the year are generally under 800, sometimes under 700, in number, and many of these are trivial in character. In the year 1906, for instance, the reported cases were 687, and of these over 400 were minor offences; 477 of the cases were decided in the criminal courts, of which 77 resulted in an acquittal and 400 in a conviction.

Border Military Police.—The origin of the Hazara Border Military Police will be described in Chapter VI. The sanctioned strength is 253, which includes one British officer as Commandant, one *Subadar-Major*, four *jemadars*, eight *havildars*, and nine *naiks*. There are five sowars, the rest are infantry. The former have Snider carbines, the latter Martini-Henry rifles. The lines are in Oghi Fort, and there is a chain of nine posts extending from the head of the Konsh valley to Tarbela. Their names are as follows: Battal, Kathia Gali, Jal Gali, Barchhar, Samalbhut, Karun, Panj Gali, Kirpilian, Tawi. All these are on, or inside, the border except Karun, which is near the Hassanzai village of Seri. For a force of this character the men are smart and efficient, and need not fear comparison with the Border Police of other Districts.



HAZARA BORDER MILITARY POLICE (THE OGHI DETACHMENT).

About half are recruited from transborder tribes and half from the District itself. Over 100 are Swathis, 60 belong to the Isazai clan, and 30 are Tanaolis. The rest are Pariari Saiads, Utmanzais, Chigharzais, and other Pathans.

Jails (Table XLIX.).—The jail at Abbottabad is a conspicuous tin-roofed building to the west of the Civil Lines. It is a third-class one only, with accommodation for 105 persons. During recent years the daily average attendance has been well under the hundred. Long-time prisoners are sent to Peshawar, Rawalpindi, or some other down-country jail.

Local Bar.—Five barristers or pleaders have licences to practise at Abbottabad, but of these only three reside there.

Education (Table LI.).—From the educational point of view, few Districts are so backward as Hazara. The latest returns (up to the end of March, 1907) show forty-four schools under the management of the District or Municipal Boards, with 2,967 boys on their rolls. Of these, one, that at Abbottabad, is a High school; two, at Haripur and Mansehra, are Anglo-Vernacular Middle schools; two, at Baffa and Kot Najibullah, are Vernacular Middle schools; thirty-two are Primary, and eight *zamindari* schools. There are also seven aided Primary schools and one unaided, and there is an unaided High school—viz., that maintained by the Arya Samaj at Abbottabad. These bring up the number of scholars to about 3,500, or, roughly speaking, 3 per cent. of the total number of boys of school-going age in the District. There are altogether five girls' schools, all of recent date. Three are aided and two unaided. Two are for Muhammadan girls, two for Hindus, and one for Sikhs, and the total number of scholars is 181.

Literacy (Table L.).—The statistics of the literacy of the total population tell the same tale. In every 100 persons only 1·9 can read and write; in every 100 males only 3·5; and in every 100 females only 0·1.

The Muhammadans are the most backward of all, their percentages being 0·9, 1·6, and nil respectively. With the Hindus the percentages are 23, 38·7, and 1·8. For this state of things there are several reasons. The inaccessibility of a large portion of the District, the distances and the difficulties of communication between one village and another, the scattered nature of the population, and the paucity of village sites of any considerable size, all tend to discourage the starting of schools. Further, the apathetic and unintelligent character of the people, the isolated lives of so many of them, the humdrum round of agricultural and pastoral pursuits, are very conducive to a condition of stagnation. Yet there are signs of some awakening. Though between 1891 and 1901 things remained much in the same state, there has been a distinct advance since the latter year. More interest has been shown in education, the number of District and Municipal schools has increased by fifteen, and the total number of scholars at these, and at aided and unaided schools, by nearly 1,500. An 'Entrance-passed' boy of an agricultural family is no longer quite the rarity that he was; employment in Government posts where a certain standard of literacy is required is more and more sought after, and thus even Hazara is making some attempt to keep abreast of the times.

Expenditure on Public Instruction (Table LII.).—The total expenditure on public instruction in the year 1905-1906 was over 24,000 rupees, which is nearly 4,000 rupees more than it was in 1901-1902. Of this amount, 14 per cent. was borne by Provincial revenues, 36 per cent. by District funds, 30 per cent. by Municipal funds, and 20 per cent. was paid for out of school fees.

Printing Press.—The Punjab Frontier Press at Abbottabad is the only printing press in the District.

Medical Administration, Staff, and Hospitals (Table LIII.).—Up to 1905 the civil surgeoncy of the District was a collateral charge held by the senior military

medical officer at Abbottabad, but in the year mentioned a whole-time civil surgeon was appointed, who works in the Galis during the summer and at Abbottabad in the winter. While he is away in the Galis the work at Abbottabad is done by the assistant-surgeon, but one of the military medical officers of the station holds charge of the jail. There are altogether six civil hospitals and dispensaries in the District—viz., at Abbottabad, Haripur, Mansehra, Oghi, Khanpur, and Nathia Gali. The first two are in charge of assistant-surgeons, the others of hospital assistants. There is accommodation for 77 indoor patients, and in the five years, 1902 to 1906, the average annual number of such patients was 1,150. The average annual attendance of the outdoor patients during the same period was 76,907, and the average number of operations 2,563.

Vaccination (Table LIV.).—The vaccination staff of the District consists of one native supervisor and five vaccinators, and the work is carried on throughout the year. Prior to 1905 there were three vaccinators only. In the year 1905-1906 over 26,000 vaccinations were performed, and the practice is gradually increasing in popularity. In all the municipalities of the District the Vaccination Act is in force.

Administration of Forests (Table XXVII.).—Excepting the Agror forests, which, as before stated, are managed by the Deputy Commissioner, the reserved forests of Hazara, constituting a division in themselves, are in charge of a Deputy Conservator of Forests, who is subject to the control partly of the Conservator of Forests, Punjab, and partly of the Revenue Commissioner, North-West Frontier Province. It is in contemplation to put the Agror forests also under him. His staff consists of 4 Rangers, 2 Deputy Rangers, 5 Foresters, and 126 Forest Guards. Details of the income from these forests, and particulars of their character and management, have already been given in the previous chapter.

CHAPTER V

HISTORY OF THE DISTRICT

Ancient History.—The ancient name of Hazara, or, at any rate, of a large portion of the country now included in the District, was Urasha, a name which still survives in the Orash or Rash plain, and is probably the 'Uraga' of the Mahabharata.

B.C. 327, 326. Ptolemy (Geogr., VII., i. 45) calls the District Ἄρσα or *Οὔαρσα*, describing it as the country between the Bidaspes (the Jhelum) and the Indus, and its King at the time of Alexander the Great's Punjab campaign figures under the name of Arsakes. It was just off Alexander's path, but the great city of Taxila, which lay on its borders, and of which faint traces in the shape of mounds and ruined walls have been found in Tofkian and other villages at the western end of the Khanpur Panjkatha and in Shah ki Dheri within the Rawalpindi District, was one of those that surrendered to the conqueror. In the time of the Buddhist dynasty, which under Chandragupta established itself on the ruins of Alexander's conquests, Hazara formed part of the Taxila province.

Asoka and his Edicts.—The great Asoka himself, Chandragupta's grandson, was at one time its governor, and after his succession to the throne, about B.C. 272, he left an enduring monument in the famous edicts which are inscribed on some rocks near the base of the Bareri hill, a mile to the west of Mansehra. These rocks are three in number. Two of them stand one above

the other at a short distance from what appears to have been a road leading up to the sacred stones on the top of the hill, which in former days were a famous place of pilgrimage, and are still the scene of an annual fair. The third rock is to the north a little lower down the hill, near a small stream which turns some watermills, and we may conjecture that the inscription was placed there to catch the eyes of the pilgrims resting by the water-side before they began the toilsome ascent. The edicts engraved on these boulders correspond closely in wording to similar inscriptions found at Shahbazgarhi in the Yusafzai country, on the borders of the Peshawar District, though the text is less complete and the fourteenth edict, an epilogue to the rest, is missing. The lower of the two higher rocks has the first eight edicts inscribed on the side that faces south-east ; the next four edicts are on the eastern and southern faces of the upper rock ; the third rock appears to have toppled over somewhat since the inscription, which consists of the thirteenth edict, was engraved on it, the letters being on the under side of its north-eastern face.* A strict adherence to the precepts of the Buddhist faith is enjoined by these edicts, and a remarkable spirit of tolerance and humanity is shown throughout. A translation of the inscriptions will be found in Appendix III.†

Raja Rasalu.—There are stories current in the District connecting it with Raja Rasalu, the legendary Hindu hero of about the second century A.D. The queer line of hillocks which at varying intervals rise out of the Haripur plain in the Kandi Kahl tract is said to be formed of

* M. Senart, in his account of these rocks (*Journal Asiatique*, 1888), describes only the first and the second, the third not having then been discovered. But he adds that the remaining edicts must have been somewhere also. M. Senart's statement of the directions in which the inscriptions face is, it may be noted, not quite accurate.

† It may here be observed that a monument to the east of the road from Abbottabad to Mansehra, on the boundary of the two tahsils, which to the non-expert looks very like a Buddhist stupa, is, according to the high authority of Dr. M. A. Stein, of Muhammadan origin.

stones collected by his army; the cave at the top of the Sarban hill was his resting-place during his hunting expeditions, and the Gandgar range was the scene of an episode in his conflict with the *Rakshas* or giants which is narrated somewhat as follows. One day Rasalu was sleeping by the edge of the Dor on the Rajoia plain, all unconscious of the fact that far away in the Gandgar hills a Raksha was making successful love to his wife. The latter had a maina and a parrot with her, and so shocked were they at what was going on that the maina spoke up and upbraided her for her behaviour. Thereupon in anger she wrung its neck. Seeing the fate of its companion, the parrot flew away to the Rajoia plain, and, dipping its wings in water, awoke the Raja by shaking them over his face. It then told him the story of his wife's unfaithfulness. Mounting his steed, he galloped straight to the Gandgar hill, and, where he sped up the Nara ravine, the print of the hoofs is still shown in the rock. Surprising his wife and the Raksha in their amorous dalliance, he slew the former, and the latter fled panic-stricken before him to a cave in the hill. Raja Rasalu followed in hot pursuit, and on reaching the mouth of the cave, closed it with a boulder, on the inner side of which he first drew a picture of his bow and arrow with the point of the latter. Seeing this, the demon dared not attempt to issue forth, and ever since he has remained imprisoned in the cave, emitting from time to time roars and groanings that sound like the rumbling of distant thunder.*

From the Seventh to the Twelfth Century A.D.—Our next notice of Hazara is from the pen of the Chinese pilgrim Hiuen Tsiang, who visited it in the seventh century A.D., and describes it as the kingdom of Wu-la-shi, situated to

* It appears a well-authenticated fact that up to within the first thirty years or so of the last century a strange rumbling noise used occasionally to proceed from the Gandgar hill. Major Abbott says that several people told him they had heard it. Its origin and the reason for its cessation remain unexplained.

the north-west of Kashmir and dependent on that State. Its capital was Mangali, on the Mangal stream, in the centre of the tract lying to the north of the Rash plain. The city has now disappeared, but a few traces of its walls are still to be seen. For many centuries after Hiuen Tsiang's visit the kingdom of Urasha's connexion with Kashmir was maintained. Thus, in Kalhana's Chronicle we read that in A.D. 902 King Shankaravarman and his army, who were marching through the country, were attacked by the inhabitants, and the King's neck was pierced by an arrow shot from a hill-top. The wound was mortal, and the King died as the army were retiring in the direction of Kashmir, but his death was concealed from them until the Jhelum valley was reached. In the next century Kalhana describes Urasha as being occupied by a Kashmir force under King Kalasha (A.D. 1063 to 1089), and its King, Abhaya, subsequently appears with other dependent princes at Kalasha's Court. The daughter of Abhaya was married to Bhoja, the son of King Harsa. In the next century Urasha was invaded by King Sussala (A.D. 1112 to 1120), and payment of tribute enforced, and King Jayasimha (A.D. 1128 to 1149) is described as defeating Dvitiya, the lord of Urasha. He is also mentioned in the same passage as taking Atyugrapura, 'strong in fighting men,' which Dr. Stein identifies with Agror, and with the Ἰθάγουρος, which Ptolemy states as being one of the cities in the kingdom of Ἄρσα. Traces here and there of ancient villages and forts, legends of walls built by *jinns* and of all-powerful *Ranis* (one at Soha in Tanawal country on the edge of the Siran, and the other at Pattan, where the Kunhar joins the Jhelum), are further evidences of Hindu domination.

From the Beginning of the Fifteenth to the Middle of the Eighteenth Century—The Turk Invasion.—The next that we hear of Hazara is in connexion with the great Timurlane, who, on returning from his invasion of

India in A.D. 1399, made the District over to a number of Karlugh Turks. By this time, therefore, the Hindu rulers had been ousted, and the authority of the Muhammadans had been established in their place. And it may here be noted that to this settlement of Turks the name Hazara is probably due. *Hazara*, or thousand, is a translation of the Turki word *ming*, meaning a regiment of a thousand men, and Hazara is therefore the country of the Turki *ming* or regiment.

Hazara in the Time of the Moghal Emperors.—Timurlane's occupation of Hazara is referred to by Abul Fazl in his 'Ain-i-Akbari,' and by the Emperor Jehangir in his History. In their time a large portion of the present District was known as 'Pakhli Sarkar.' It included what is now the Tanawal and Swathi country and the Rash plain, but not the Nara and Khanpur hills, which were in the possession of the Gakhars, nor the Haripur plain, which was included in the Attock governorship. The inhabitants of 'Pakhli Sarkar' were, in the time of the earlier Moghal emperors, the Turks above referred to, and in a few villages their descendants are still to be found.

Changes occurring during the Decline of the Moghal Dynasty.—During the decline of the Moghal dynasty changes of great importance took place in the political constitution of the tracts now included in the District. These changes arose mainly from two causes—the decay of the vitality of the old families, and the increasing aggressiveness of the Pathans and their allied races. One of the most notable of these events was the invasion of Pakhli by the Swathis in a succession of inroads during the seventeenth century. They came from Swat, the country on the Swat river north-east of Peshawar, being driven out by pressure from the Pathan tribes. Shortly before their eviction their Sovereign was one Sultan Pakhal, of the dynasty of the Jahangiri Sultans, from whom the name of Pakhli is derived. The latest inroad was probably

early in the eighteenth century, and was led by a Saiad named Jalal Baba, whose tomb is in the Bhogarmang valley. The Turks were dispossessed, and the Swathis established themselves in the northern portion of the District and in the hill country adjoining to the west.

Similarly, the Tanaolis, of whose origin little is known, were pushed out of their trans-Indus country round Mahaban by the Yusafzais, and established themselves in the tracts now called by their name. The Jaduns, a Pathan tribe, also crossed the Indus, and appropriated the old Turk rights in the country round Dhamtaur. The Karrals and Dhunds began to assert their independence of the Gakhars ; the Pathan tribe of Tarins acquired a large portion of the rights of the elder Gujar families in the Hazara plain ; and the Utmanzais, whom the remaining Gujars called across the Indus to Tarbela in order to strengthen their position, obtained possession by mortgage and sale of much of the land belonging to those who had invited their aid.

All these events appear to have taken place in the seventeenth or at the beginning of the eighteenth century. In the total absence of all written records it is impossible to place them in their correct order or to describe exactly how they came about. Nor is it necessary to repeat the exaggerated traditions of each tribe. The changes were the natural result of the absence of a strong controlling central authority, and of a system in which might was the chief or only right. A weak tribe would find its territory the subject of harassing demands and attacks from some poor but braver tribe in the vicinity. Unable to defend itself unaided, it would call its neighbours to help. To them it would give land in payment for their arms, and on a service tenure subordinate to the old lords. But in the course of time the latter would become more effete, while their retainers would grow more numerous and exacting in their demands, and so gradually the original tribe would be entirely supplanted.

Latter Half of Eighteenth Century and Beginning of Nineteenth—Hazara under Durani Rule.—A fresh epoch in the history of Hazara opened with the invasion of the Punjab by Ahmad Shah Durani, the successor of Nadir Shah, in 1748, and the cession to him in 1752 of the Punjab, including Kashmir. It is probable that the succeeding years of Ahmad Shah's reign saw a little strengthening of the administration in Hazara. But it was not to the interest of the Kabul Emperors to exact much revenue. They were able, as occasion needed, to draw good soldiers from the District, and one of the best roads to Kashmir lay through its centre. So they gave the chiefs large allowances, and were content with the little that remained over. The north of the District they managed through the head of the Swathi clan; the Tanawal, Karral, and Gakhar hills through their respective chiefs; and the Hazara plain through the Kardars of Attock or the chief of the Tarins. But by the beginning of the nineteenth century the Durani government had become very weak and Hazara proportionately unruly. This was, indeed, a matter of small concern to the Durani Kings and their deputies in Kashmir. Collecting such arrears of revenue as they could conveniently extort on their road through the District, the Durani rulers were content to forget it as soon as they were out of it. If their faces were set towards the rich Vale of Kashmir, it was lost time to loiter on the road. If they were returning homewards towards Afghanistan proper, their hearts were still less inclined to linger in so profitless a tract. In these days there were none of those settled and peaceful influences which have given to Hazara its present prosperity.

Prominent Chiefs in Durani Times.—In the anarchy which grew up under such a state of affairs, the names of one or two prominent chiefs who kept their tribes in order deserve to be mentioned. Such was Sadat Khan, the head of the Swathis, who founded on the banks of

the Kunhar the village which was then known as Garhi Sadat Khan, but is now called Garhi Habibullah Khan after his son. So influential and respected was he that the chiefs of Tanawal, and of the Jaduns used to refer their disputes to him for settlement. Others were Jafir Khan, the chief of the Khanpur Gakhars from A.D. 1789 to 1801 ; Gulsher Khan, the head of the Pallal Tanaolis, whom Forster the traveller visited in 1783; Najibullah Khan, the Tarin chief, who vigorously governed the greater part of the Hazara plain during the latter half of the eighteenth century up to his death in A.D. 1799; and his widow, Bari Begam, who filled her husband's place between that date and the commencement of the Sikh rule, aided by her Gujar retainer, Mukaddam Musharraf. Otherwise the record towards the end of the eighteenth and during the beginning of the nineteenth century is little but one of faction, treachery, assassination, intertribal raids, and general lawlessness. As an instance the following will suffice. In A.D. 1803 the Governor of Attock sent one of the *kazis* of Chach to collect the revenue of the Hazara plain. He encamped at Sikandarpur, near which the Haripur town now stands; but the Tarin family, under the leadership of their retainer, Mukaddam Musharraf, after some parleying and pretence of meeting his orders, made a night attack on his camp and killed him, such of his followers as were able to escape fleeing back to Attock.

Commencement of Sikh Rule.—The above was one of **A.D. 1818.** the last acts of the Durani Government of Hazara. For the power of the Sikhs was on the rise, and it was about at this date that Ranjit Singh first asserted his independence of the Kabul Empire. The introduction of Sikh rule into Hazara, however, did not commence till A.D. 1818. In this year Hashim Khan, Turk, of Manakrai, murdered his fellow-chieftain, Kamal Khan. The latter's cause was espoused by the Tarin chief, Muhammad Khan, and to save himself Hashim Khan betrayed his country to the

Sikhs. At his invitation Makhan Singh, the Sikh Governor of Rawalpindi, invaded Hazara with 500 sowars, built a fort at Serai Saleh, and levied tribute from the Haripur plain.

A.D. 1819, 1820. In the succeeding year Maharajah Ranjit Singh annexed Kashmir. Makhan Singh appears, on the strength of his master's successes, to have pressed the Tarin chief for revenue. The result was a gathering of the Hazara people to attack the Sikh Governor, and a fight at Shah Muhammad on the Dor, in which Makhan Singh was slain. The next day his force abandoned the Serai Saleh fort, and marched back to Attock. The Governor of Attock, Hukma Singh Chimni, marched out to punish the rebels ; but after some skirmishing at Mota and at Sultanpur on the Harroh, he made up his mind that his force was too weak for the purpose, marched back to Attock, and wrote to Lahore for reinforcements. From Lahore Diwan Ramdial and Colonel Ilahi Bakhsh were sent to his assistance. Part of Hazara submitted, but the Tarin chief, Muhammad Khan, the Saidkhani Utmanzais, and the Mishwanis, opposed the Sikh Governor at Nara, by the foot of the Gandgar range. The Diwan attacked them unwarily, was defeated, and himself slain.

A.D. 1821. *Governorship of Amar Singh Majithia.*—Ranjit Singh then sent Sardar Amar Singh Majithia to govern Lower Hazara, Upper Hazara—viz., the Swathi and Tanawal country—being still ruled from Kashmir. The new Governor was an astute person, and he succeeded in winning over the leading men to his side, and in collecting the old Durani revenue and tribute from the Hazara plain ; but as he was retiring from a successful attack on Hassan Ali Khan, the Karral chief in the Nara tract, his rearguard was surprised and cut to pieces by the tribesmen, and he himself was killed. The scene of this disaster was the bank of the Samundar stream, a tributary of the Harroh. Reinforcements were dispatched from Lahore under Mai Sadda Kaur and Sher Singh,

Ranjit Singh's son, who established themselves in the Haripur plain and built a fort at Tarbela. The tribute payable by the chiefs was revised, and Mai Sadda Kaur went through the ceremony of adopting the Tarin, Muhammad Khan, as her son.

Arrival of Sardar Hari Singh Nalwa.—But events of great importance to Hazara were now impending. The Maharajah had summoned the famous Sardar Hari Singh Nalwa, Governor of Kashmir, to give an account of his charge. He marched by Muzaffarabad and Pakhli with 7,000 foot-soldiers. When he reached Mangal, he found that a large number of Jaduns and Tanaolis, estimated at not less than 25,000 men, had collected there to oppose his passage. Parleying having failed, he stormed their position and burnt the town. Some 2,000 of his opponents were killed, including many who perished in the flames or threw themselves from the walls. As a further punishment, Hari Singh levied a fine of between 5 and 6 rupees on every house inhabited by the Jaduns. He then built a fort at Nawanshahr, garrisoned it, and went on to Lower Hazara. Pleased with the treasure and presents brought from Kashmir, and with the victory won at Mangal, Ranjit Singh excused him from rendering any accounts of his former charge, and made him Governor of all Hazara.

Events in Hazara during Hari Singh's Rule.—From **A.D.**
1822 to his death in 1837 Hari Singh, with brief intervals, **1822–1837.**
ruled over Hazara, and in this period reduced the unruly tribes to submission by vigorous measures and consolidated the Sikh power. One of his first steps was to build the Haripur fort, which was known as Harkishangarh,
and was very strongly constructed. In 1823 he inflicted **A.D.**
severe chastisement on the Jaduns, Swathis, and Tanaolis, **1823.**
who had taken advantage of his absence in the Derajat to rise and attack the forts at Nawanshahr, Shinkiari, and Darband. The Jaduns were defeated with slaughter; Agror, Tikari, and Konsh were raided by a band of 500

sowars, and 1,000 Swathi women and children captured. Shingri, the head-quarters of Sarbuland Khan, the Pallal Tanaoli chief, was burnt, and the chief himself defeated near Banda Loharan, his son Sher Khan being slain by Hari Singh with his own hand.

A.D. 1824. *Hari Singh's Defeat at Nara.*—The Sardar next turned his attention to the Gandgar hills, where Muhammad Khan and a number of other recalcitrant chiefs had taken refuge. In 1822 the Sikhs, after winning a hard-fought battle at Sari at the base of the range, had been defeated in an endeavour to reduce Sirikot. They now, in 1824, again made the attempt, and again failed. At Nara, which stands at the mouth of a path leading up to Sirikot, the Mishwanis and Saidkhani Utmanzais made a gallant stand, repulsed the Sikh force, which was 8,000 strong, and sent it back to Haripur with a loss of 500 men. A white pillar, erected at a later date by Major Abbott, and conspicuous from afar, commemorates the scene of their victory. Hari Singh himself was struck down by a stone hurled from the walls of the village, and rolled into the ravine below, where he lay for a long time senseless and undiscovered. It was reported, indeed, that he was dead, but in a short time, having recovered from his wounds, he confuted the rumour by surprising the village of Bagra, where a number of rebels had collected, and putting to the sword every armed man that he found there.

Ranjit Singh Visits Hazara.—Alarmed at the news of Hari Singh's defeat at Nara, Ranjit Singh hastened up to Hazara with large reinforcements. Arrived there, he sent for all the chiefs and leading men who had taken refuge at Sirikot. The Tarin Muhammad Khan, Sarbuland Khan the Tanaoli, and Shah Muhammad, the head of the Mishwanis, were the only ones to obey his summons. He then attacked the Sirikot hills at a number of points simultaneously, driving all opposition before him, and, after staying two nights at Sirikot, marched

on to Tarbela. While halted at the latter place, he mounted an elephant and went down to the river-side, whereupon the Utmanzais of Khabbal on the opposite bank opened fire on him. Enraged at this, he made his cavalry swim across the river early next morning at a point lower down, and destroyed the villages of Khabbal and Kaya, their inhabitants having taken to the hills. He then marched through Yusafzai and back Lahore-wards via Serai Kala, taking Muhammad Khan, Tarin, with him. The Sirikot hills were secured by the building of a fort, which was garrisoned with 500 men.

Drastic Measures taken by Sardar Hari Singh after Ranjit Singh's Departure.—After Ranjit Singh's departure Hari Singh turned his attention to the Karrals, who submitted without fighting. Their chief, Hassan Ali Khan, was given a large *jagir*, and a fort was built at Nara. The Sardar then departed for Lahore, leaving Mahan Singh behind him as his Deputy Governor. He had not long been gone when Bostan Khan, Tarin, the nephew of Muhammad Khan, who was imprisoned at Lahore, raised a new disturbance in the Sirikot hills. Returning to Hazara, Hari Singh had little difficulty in quelling this outbreak, and to prevent a recurrence of anything of the kind he took some very drastic measures. Muhammad Khan, whose person he had purchased from Ranjit Singh for 55,000 rupees, he caused to be poisoned; Bostan Khan, Tarin, the two principal Mishwani headmen, and one or two other leading men, were blown away from guns; and the Mishwanis were evicted from Sirikot and forced to live in exile trans-Indus till the year 1830, when they obtained permission to return. The 55,000 rupees which Hari Singh had paid for Muhammad Khan were recovered by the levy of a tax of 2½ rupees per house from most of the villages in Hazara. A.D. 1825.

Conflicts with Hindustani Fanatics.—With the exception of the country of the Gakhars and the Dhunds, and of Kagan, which was administered from Kashmir, the A.D. 1825–1827.

whole of Hazara was now subjugated, and from 1825 to
A.D. 1827 remained comparatively quiet. In 1828 Hari Singh
1828–1830. came into conflict with the Hindustani fanatics from trans-Indus, and defeated them at Phulra on the right bank of the Siran west of Mansehra. The Hindustanis' 2,000 allies from Hazara, who were chiefly Tanaolis, fled at the beginning of the engagement, and the fanatics themselves were cut up to a man, including their leader, Ahmad Ali Shah, a nephew of the Khalifa Said Ahmad. In 1830 the Hindustanis reappeared in Hazara, and made themselves masters of the Konsh and Bhogarmang glens, and of the valley of the Kunhar down to Balakot, the Swathis and Kagan Saiads siding with them. But they were met by a Sikh force under Sher Singh at Balakot, and defeated with great slaughter, their leader, Khalifa Said Ahmad, himself being among the killed. The latter's body was flung into the river, but was recovered lower down at the village of Talhatta, where it was buried.

A.D. 1831. *Eviction of Gakhars.*—In 1831 Hari Singh evicted the Gakhar chiefs from their country on the plea that their tribute was in arrears, and, building a fort at Khanpur, took the tract under direct control. For six years, from their retreats in the Dhund and Karral hills, the Gakhars created constant disturbances in parts of their old domains, but eventually, in 1837, they were conciliated with *jagir* grants. Meanwhile, Hari Singh had reduced the Dhund country to subjection, and built a fort at Dannah to dominate it.

A.D. 1836, 1837. *Death of Hari Singh.*—In 1836 and 1837 there were outbreaks among the Karrals, but these were quickly subdued, and at the end of 1836 Painda Khan, the Tanawal chief, who all his life was a thorn in the Sikh side, and whose history will be given in a later chapter, was evicted by Hari Singh from Agror. But this was one of the last acts of the great Sikh General in Hazara, for in April, 1837, he was killed at the battle of Jamrud. He had left his mark upon this District, which only a strong hand like

his could at that time effectively control. Of unbounded energy and courage, ruthless in his treatment of those who opposed his path, he ruled by fear alone, and was a terror to the country-side. And he still remains an ogre, invoked by mothers to quiet their babies. The town of Haripur fittingly perpetuates his name, and the fort of Harkishangarh, now the tahsil and police-station, is an enduring monument of his power. Yet even he could do little to ensure peace and security in outlying tracts at a distance from his forts, and the traveller Von Hugel, who passed through the District in 1835, describes how the Pakhli plain was still overrun by robber bands, against whose incursions each village defended itself by a thick fence of thorns.

A.D. 1837–1846. The great flood of 1841.

Hari Singh's Successors.—Maha Singh succeeded Hari Singh as Governor of Hazara, but in October, 1837, he was recalled, and Sardar Teja Singh was sent in his stead. In the following four years the only event that needs chronicling here is the great flood in the Indus of the 2nd of June, 1841, caused by the bursting of a dam, which a land-slip had formed across the river much higher up. At the time the Sikhs were fighting with Painda Khan in the hills to the east of the Indus, and were camped at Kharkot, near the river-bank. The waters rushed down with a mighty roar, sweeping away the Sikh forts at Darband and Tarbela, numerous villages on either side of the river, including Amb, Painda Khan's capital, and the whole of the Sikh encampment, with baggage, magazine, and several guns. At sight of this catastrophe the contending forces on the hills above stopped their fighting, and, on Painda Khan's sending word to the Sikh leader that God had judged them and made the one as helpless as the other, they separated, and marched back to Tanawal and Haripur respectively. Events are still dated from this terrible flood.

In the winter of 1841 Kaur Partab Singh, to whom his father, Maharajah Sher Singh, the successor of Ranjit

Singh, had given Kashmir and Hazara in *jagir*, came to Hazara via Kashmir, and appointed Gulab Singh to be Governor of the two countries. On his return to Lahore he took Gulab Singh with him, and Arbel Singh was left as Deputy Governor of Hazara.

A.D. 1843–1846. *Diwan Mulraj.*—In September, 1843, Sher Singh and Partab Singh were murdered at Lahore, and the Darbar, who took over charge of the Punjab on behalf of the boy Dhulip Singh, on resuming the direct management of Hazara, sent Diwan Mulraj Dilwalia (who must not be confounded with Diwan Mulraj, the Governor of Multan) in Arbel Singh's place. He made a systematic revision of the revenue, but, according to Major Abbott, as noted in the foregoing chapter, his rule was harsh and harassing to the people, and many of them evacuated their villages to escape his extortions.

A.D. 1844. *Death of Diwan Ibrahim in the Kagan Valley.*—In 1844 the most notable event was in far Kagan, where Diwan Ibrahim, who had been sent by Raja Gulab Singh from Jammu with a small force, was led into an ambush at a gorge below Kagan village, thenceforth known as Diwan Bela, and destroyed with all his men by the Kagan Saiads and the Swathis of Balakot.

A.D. 1846. *Disturbances resulting from the First Sikh War.*—The disorganization of government at the Sikh capital that led to the first Sikh war gave the tribes of Hazara an opportunity which they were unable to resist, and in the beginning of 1846, as the news of the British victories were received, the disturbances became general. The Dhunds, headed by their religious leaders, the Pirs of Palasi, were the first to rise. They stormed the Mari fort in the Karral country, and defeated two detachments sent against them by Mulraj. It was not till the arrival of two new regiments from Lahore that the rising was put down. Meanwhile a remnant of the Hindustani fanatics, declaring that Khalifa Said Ahmad was not dead and would soon reappear, collected at Kawai in Kagan, and, being

joined by the people of Northern Hazara, attacked the forts of Shinkiari, Bhair Kund, Garhi Habibullah Khan, and Agror, and slew their garrisons. The Mishwanis rose and stormed the Sirikot fort. The Khanpur Gakhars, led by Raja Haidar Bakhsh Khan, took the Khanpur fort, and repossessed themselves of their country. And Nawab Khan, the Tanaoli chief of Shingri, who had been sent on a mission to the Swathis by Mulraj, but instead of quieting the country had been fermenting revolt, seized the fort at Sherwan.

Mulraj's desire to put down these disturbances had been paralyzed from the first by the refusal of his spare troops, who were cantoned at Rajoia, to march into Northern Hazara. On the Jaduns rising and collecting at Bagra, and Gulam Khan, the Tarin chief, assembling a number of followers at Jagal, close to Haripur, the Rajoia troops deserted their cantonments, and, marching to Haripur, camped outside the fort. Here also on the 7th of March, 1846, the other Sikh detachments sought refuge when the town of Haripur, where they were stationed, was attacked, plundered, and burnt by the revolting tribesmen. Gulam Khan now took up his quarters in the town, while the Tarkheli chief established himself at the adjoining village of Dheri; Nawab Khan and the Tanaolis, with some Hindustanis, crossed the Dor to Manakrai; and the Karrals, Jaduns, and Dilazaks encamped east of Haripur at Serai Saleh. Their next step was to cut off the channel which supplied the fort with water from the Dor, with the result that in twelve days the tanks of the fort were exhausted and the Sikh troops had no resource but to fight. To their surprise they scattered the tribesmen with little difficulty, and, aided by a reinforcement of two regiments from Peshawar, they made some show of punishing the villages nearest Haripur which were most concerned in the revolt. But in reality Diwan Mulraj had lost heart, and, making an excuse of a message received from Lahore, he evacuated the fort on

the 16th of April, and marched off to Hassan Abdal with all his troops.

Lundi Musalmani.—The Hazara chiefs then assembled at Haripur, and appointed Said Akbar of Sitana, the home of the Hindustani fanatics on the right bank of the Indus, as their ruler, with Nawab Khan, Tanaoli, and Gulam Khan, Tarin, as his Ministers. And throughout the District an attempt was made to restore the status which existed prior to Sikh rule, especially in regard to the tenure of land. This period is popularly spoken of in Hazara as the *Lundi Musalmani*, the term '*Lundi*' signifying incomplete. And incomplete it was, for the hopes that had been raised were doomed to almost immediate disappointment.

A.D. 1846. *Hazara under Raja Gulab Singh.*—On the 19th of March, 1846, peace was concluded between the Sikh Darbar and the British Government. The twelfth article of the treaty ceded to Raja Gulab Singh Kashmir and its dependencies, or, as it was described in a separate treaty with the Raja executed on the 16th of March, 'all the hilly or mountainous country with its dependencies situate eastward of the river Indus and westward of the river Ravi.'

Their transfer to Kashmir was intensely distasteful to the people of Hazara. It was out of the frying-pan into the fire. Moreover, the oppression practised by the Sikhs was in more fortunate Districts to be controlled and mitigated by the influence of British officers, whereas they were left to the tender mercies of the cruel Maharajah and the extortion and savageries of his ill-paid and ill-disciplined troops. Almost with one accord, therefore, they combined to make things very uncomfortable for their new ruler. In Lower Hazara, indeed, some kind of control was established. Diwan Hari Chand, who was sent by the Maharajah to collect the revenue, arrived in Haripur via Khanpur on the 22nd of May, 1846, and, establishing himself in the fort, received the submission of most of the inhabitants of the surrounding country, while Raja

Haidar Bakhsh Khan, the Gakhar chief, paid up the *rabi* revenue of the Khanpur tract. But that the submission can have been little more than skin deep is shown by the fact that in November, 1846, Captain James Abbott, an assistant to the Lahore Resident, who was shortly to be so intimately associated with the District, and was then at Hassan Abdal, engaged in settling the boundary between the Punjab and Kashmir, received a deputation from the tribes of the Haripur plain, who implored the British Government to save them from the fate of being slaves to the Kashmir Maharajah. He proceeded to Haripur, finding, as he says, the country in rebellion, and a Sikh force of 4,000 men hemmed in the Haripur fort. He succeeded in reconciling Mirzaman Khan, the Utmanzai Khan of Khalabat, who was the leader of the rebels, to the Government, and after three days returned to his boundary work.

Elsewhere, meanwhile, the people had continued intractable. At Rajoia and Nawanshahr the Jaduns, assisted in the latter place by Hindustani fanatics, defeated the Jammu troops with slaughter ; the Dhunds and Karrals were in rebellion ; disorder reigned in Pakhli ; and the Saiads and Swathis of Kagan, assisted by Hindustanis, defied all authority. Towards the end of the year a Sikh army of ten regiments, after coercing Sheikh Imamuddin, the refractory Governor of Kashmir, who at first had opposed the installation of Raja Gulab Singh, marched from Srinagar via Muzaffarabad to subjugate Upper Haraza. It was commanded by Diwan Karam Chand, and accompanied by Mr. Vans Agnew and Lieutenant Lumsden, assistants to the Resident of Lahore. On the 6th of January, 1847, they were opposed ineffectually by the Swathis and Hindustanis at the Dub pass above Garhi Habibullah, and, the Swathis submitting to the Kashmir Governor after the battle, the Hindustanis fled the country. The Sikh troops then swept through the valleys of Hazara, and secured the

Maharajah in their possession. But most of the hill tracts remained in open rebellion, and the Jammu troops, which succeeded the Sikhs, were badly defeated at Mirpur and Namli Maira.

A.D. 1847. *Transfer of Hazara to the Lahore Darbar.*—Finding his newly acquired territory such a veritable hornets' nest, the Kashmir Maharajah was only too ready to get rid of it if a suitable exchange could be arranged, and early in 1847 he induced the Lahore Darbar to take over from him all the hilly country west of the Jhelum in return for a tract near Jammu. The basis on which this settlement was made was 'that an equitable assessment should first be made in Hazara, involving the release of *jagirs* and other rent-free holdings ; and on the reduced income lands should be given on another part of the border' (Jammu cis-Jhelum) 'to half the value of those of Hazara.' One of the most beautiful Districts in India was thus saved from the clutches of Gulab Singh, and with the advent of Captain Abbott to make the prescribed assessment, a new era dawned in its chequered history.

James Abbott.—James Abbott was not the least remarkable of the famous group of military civilians who, under the guidance of the Lawrences, shaped the destinies of the Punjab when it first came under British influence ; and so large a part did he take in consolidating that influence in Hazara, and so much does the District owe to him, that no apology is needed if we dilate at some length on his character and career. He was born in 1807, and educated at Blackheath, where he was a schoolfellow of Disraeli. After passing through Addiscombe, he received, in 1823, a commission in the Bengal Artillery, and arrived in India at the end of that year. His first active service was under Lord Combermere at the siege of Bhartpur in December, 1825. In 1835 and 1836 he was deputed to Revenue Survey work in the Agra province. In 1838 he joined the army of the Indus under Sir J. Keane, and marched with it to Kandahar.

From there he was sent to Herat as an assistant to Major D'Arcy Todd. In December, 1839, he was deputed to visit Khiva to try and effect the release of the Russian prisoners detained by the Khan of that State. At the Khan's desire he undertook to go on to Russia, which was then at war with Khiva, and endeavour to arrange an exchange of captives. He started, accordingly, for the Caspian, but on reaching the seashore his small party was attacked by brigands of the Kussak tribe, who imagined that he was a Russian. His baggage was looted, and he himself was severely beaten, and received a sabre cut which severed one finger of his right hand and half severed another. For eighteen days he remained a prisoner in the hands of the Kussaks, suffering great discomfort and excruciating pain from his wound. At last his captors were induced by bribes and threats to set him free, and take him to the Russian fort of Mero Alexanderofski. There he found a doctor, who dressed his wound after amputating the mutilated finger, and, crossing the Caspian, he journeyed to Moscow and St. Petersburg without further mishap. His negotiations for the exchange of prisoners were successful, and on proceeding to England in August, 1840, he received the thanks of Lord Palmerston, the Foreign Secretary, and subsequently was given a pension for his injuries. He wrote a lively account of his adventures in two volumes entitled, 'Narrative of a Journey from Herat to Khiva, Moscow, and St. Petersburg.'

In 1841 he returned to India, and, after serving at Marwara and Indore, was in 1846 attached to the Residency at Lahore, and, as above noted, was appointed to survey and demarcate the boundary between the Punjab and Kashmir. It was towards the end of May, 1847, while engaged on this work near the borders of Hazara, that he received the orders deputing him to that District, with powers of control over all branches of the administration. The task allotted to him was a very congenial one. Of

a sanguine, enthusiastic temperament, chivalrous, warm-hearted, and generous, he had little difficulty in winning the hearts of the people. They welcomed him as their saviour from Sikh and Dogra oppression, and to gratitude were soon added an admiration of his energy and courage and an affection that responded readily to his many acts of liberality and kindliness. He had a special fondness for children, and it is told how he used to go about laden with sweets, and how at the cry that *Kaka* (uncle) Abbott was coming the little ones would throng out from the villages and crowd around him, while the bolder searched his pockets for the treasures that they knew were there. 'He was,' says Sir Henry Lawrence, 'of the stuff of the true knight-errant, gentle as a girl in thought, word, or deed, overflowing with warm affection, and ready at all times to sacrifice himself for his country or his friend.' And thus it came about that, little more than a year after he came to the District, Sir F. Currie, the Resident at Lahore, was able to write about him as follows: 'He is beloved—in fact, almost worshipped—by the people. All persons that I have conversed with, who have come from those parts, are unanimous in their estimation of him. They say that he has gained such an influence with the inhabitants of the province that he can do what he pleases with a race whom the Sikhs could never control, and whom the wily and shrewd Maharajah Gulab Singh was glad to get from under his government on almost any terms.' How he acquitted himself in his responsible post and guided the fortunes of Hazara in the troublesome period that was to ensue has now to be described.

June, 1847. *Steps taken by Abbott for the Pacification of the Country.*—Abbott entered the District on the 1st of June, 1847, and proceeded at once to Haripur, the head-quarters of the administration, finding the surrounding country still suffering from the effects of Mulraj's forays. On the 3rd of June he received the news that the Jammu troops under Diwan

Karam Chand had been disgracefully beaten in the Dhund country. In the same month he visited the forts at Nawanshahr (in the Rash plain) and Mansehra. He found the troops at either place almost in a state of mutiny on account of long arrears of pay, and the subject of bitter complaints from the villagers on the score of oppression and extortion. After a tour round the Mansehra tahsil, in the course of which he met Vans Agnew at Garhi Habibullah Khan, and discussed with him the state of the Dhund and Karral country, and after arranging for the evacuation of the forts by the Jammu troops, he returned to Haripur at the end of the month.

The Tarkhelis of Gandgar.—In July the Sikh regiments that had been sent to relieve the Maharajah's troops arrived, and he was able to begin the task of reducing the unruly elements in the District to order. The most troublesome of these were the Tarkhelis of Gandgar. They were the pests of the surrounding country. Descending from their fastnesses, they would commit robberies and murders with impunity, for it was almost impossible to catch them before they got back into the hills. Such a terror, indeed, were they that the villages at the foot of the range either were utterly deserted or paid them blackmail. Abbott had not been in Hazara three weeks when they carried off a Hindu trader and sixty head of cattle from Kot Najibullah. A week later the Gujars had their revenge, for they succeeded in ambushing a party of them and killing five. In retaliation for this, on the night of the 28th of June, the Tarkhelis crept down on the village of Bakka, which lies in the Haripur plain not far from the base of the hills, and murdered several sleeping women and children in cold blood.

July, 1847.

Such a state of things was not to be tolerated; but the reduction of the Tarkhelis was no easy matter, the Gandgar hills being considered almost impregnable. On the 3rd of July Abbott paid a surprise visit to Sirikot, the Mishwani village at the upper end of the range, to spy out the

country, and on the 4th of July he was visited at Haripur by Lieutenant Lumsden, then in charge of the Yusafzai tract across the Indus, who had summoned the Tarkhelis to see him, but had received an insolent reply, and who wished to discuss measures for their suppression. The Tarkhelis paying no regard to Abbott's summons either, it was eventually decided that Lieutenant John Nicholson, who was in political charge of the Sind Sagar Doab, and was then at Hassan Abdal with a small Sikh force, should sweep round the lower end of the range, and, marching up through the Khari tract on the bank of the Indus, should enter Salam Khand at daybreak from that direction, whilst Abbott should march over the Gandgar ridge from the Haripur side, and descend on Salam Khand at the same hour. In its performance the scheme was not altogether successful. Nicholson finding the road longer than he expected, the Tarkhelis had ample warning of his approach, and, evacuating the village, fled, via Sirikot. And Abbott was not able to intercept them, for he reached the summit of the ridge later than he anticipated, owing to part of his column losing its way. But although the effort to catch the Tarkhelis between two fires had failed, the seizure of Salam Khand and the occupation of the Gandgar country had a great effect, and various hitherto recalcitrant chiefs, including Jahandad Khan, the son of Painda Khan of Amb, the Saiads of Kagan, and the Karrals of Nara, hastened to tender their submission. The Tarkheli chiefs themselves, after remaining in exile for some months at Khabbal across the Indus, eventually surrendered. They were kept in custody for a year or so, and were then restored to their homes.

End of 1847. *Submission of the Dhunds.*—The only tribe that remained more or less in rebellion were the Dhunds. After a visit to Nara to establish the administration among the Karrals, Abbott in November, 1847, started for the Dhund country, via Khanpur, and the bed of the Harroh. His small force was augmented, when he reached Dannah on

the ridge above Lora, by a column which arrived from the Rawalpindi direction under Sardar Jhanda Singh, till the whole numbered 2,300 men, eight field and twenty camel guns. The field-guns were carried on elephants, which must have found marching a difficult task in so roadless and mountainous a country, and it is not surprising to hear that two died, one of them falling down a precipice. The Dhunds saw that resistance to so imposing a force was useless, and lost little time in making their submission. Abbott then turned his steps in the direction of Kahuta, in what is now the Rawalpindi District (for the country of the Dhunds and Satis round Murree was also in his charge), and employed himself in the revenue settlement of those parts. Subsequently he proceeded south along the Kashmir-Punjab boundary, checking the pillars which had been erected under his orders in the previous year, and he did not return to Hazara till April, 1848.

The Outbreak at Multan.—It was on the 16th of that month that Vans Agnew and Anderson were murdered at Multan, and the first act was played in the drama that had its crisis in the battles of the second Sikh war and its ending in the annexation of the Punjab. The startling news reached Abbott at Haripur on the 29th of April. At this time Hazara was garrisoned by a force of 4,000 troops in Harkishangarh, the fort of Haripur, under the command of the Nazim, or Governor, Sardar Chattar Singh, and his assistant, the Naib Nazim Sardar Jhanda Singh, and by two regiments who were encamped along with four guns at Gandhian in the Pakhli plain to the north of Mansehra under Colonels Bhup Singh and Bahadur Singh. In addition to these were the garrisons of the numerous small forts that studded the country, which consisted mostly of local levies or of mercenaries other than Sikhs, such as Purbias and Muhammadans. **April, 1848.**

Sardar Chattar Singh.—Sardar Chattar Singh was one of the most prominent of the Sikh chiefs. He owned

extensive estates and enjoyed large *jagirs;* he was an intimate friend of the Raja of Kashmir; his daughter was betrothed to Maharajah Dhulip Singh, the grandson of Ranjit Singh, who was now the titular ruler of the Punjab; and he had a long career in the service of the State. He was old and somewhat broken in health, but his intellect was keen, and for craft and cunning he was hardly to be surpassed. Jhanda Singh, who was reputed to have great influence over him, was a good soldier, and supposed to be entirely trustworthy.

Abbott's Companions.—With Abbott were Lieutenant R. C. Robinson, an uncovenanted Assistant Surveyor named Ingram, and a dozen British sappers or so, who were engaged on the survey.

May 5, 1848. *Dispatch of Troops to the South.*—On the 2nd of May orders arrived from the Darbar directing a force from Hazara to march southwards under Jhanda Singh at once, in order to ensure tranquillity in the Sind Sagar Doab. A cavalry and an infantry regiment with some guns left Haripur accordingly on the 5th of May, accompanied by representatives of the Hazara chiefs, whom Abbott had thought it prudent to attach to the force as sureties for the good behaviour of those they left behind.

State of Affairs in Hazara during May.—For several weeks after the departure of these troops little of moment occurred in Hazara. There were occasional signs of turbulence among the soldiery, and Colonel Canara, an American who commanded a battery of light artillery, and was loyal to the core, was not easy as to the temper of his gunners. But whatever ferment there may have been in the lower ranks who were excited by the attempt of Diwan Mulraj to throw off the British yoke, their leaders apparently still held aloof, and the relations between Abbott and the Nazim continued amicable. Abbott's chief anxiety at the time was to keep the people tranquil, and in spite of the weakening of the Hazara Field Force and of rumours of disaffection among the Karrals, the

hold which he had obtained over the District rendered this a task of no great difficulty.

The Ripening of Revolt.—On the 23rd of May Abbott moved out of Haripur with his establishment, and camped in a shady place 14 miles to the north, inside the Tanawal hills. He and his men had suffered from the impure water of the town, and they required a change. But the move was, perhaps, an unfortunate one. The troops were, as he phrased it, 'in the hush of expectation, waiting to shape their conduct with the tide of coming events,' and the best hope of keeping them and their officers under control was his continued presence in their midst. With his restraining influence withdrawn to some distance, a freer scope was left for intrigue and the ripening of revolt. On the 1st of June he moved his camp and marched to Sherwan, which is situated on a ridge some 5,000 feet high in the centre of the Tanawal country, and where he had built himself a small bungalow. It was still further away from Haripur and the Sikh troops, but was in a good position for keeping in touch with the tribes of that portion of the District, to whom he looked for protection and assistance if the Sikhs turned against him. Meanwhile disaffection was rapidly spreading among the latter. Abbott's letter-bags were tampered with. A mysterious Guru, arriving in Haripur from Lahore, was received with great honour, and was closeted for long with the Nazim, and tidings of the defection of the Chauringhi regiment from Jhanda Singh's force increased the ferment. Early in July unsatisfactory news began to arrive about the state of the troops in Pakhli, who were said to be eager to march towards Multan, and Abbott's suspicions of Chattar Singh's designs were aroused. The Guru above mentioned was sent on to Peshawar on a secret mission to the Sikh troops there, and endeavours were made to seduce some of the leading chiefs of Hazara from their allegiance. The great anxiety which the excitement in the Pakhli brigade caused to

Abbott was increased by the apparent connivance of Chattar Singh, who never alluded to the state of these troops in his correspondence, and who was reported to be actively intriguing with them and with the equally disaffected regiments in Bannu and Peshawar. On the 1st of August intelligence arrived that the brigade had made up its mind to march, in spite of half-hearted protests from its commanding officers. But Abbott was determined to prevent their joining forces with the Haripur troops if he could, and at his bidding the tribes of Tanawal and Rash occupied the hills flanking the roads that lead out of Pakhli to the south, and barred the way. Seeing these preparations, the troops for a time abandoned their design.

The Outbreak at Haripur—Canara's Death.—But the crisis was approaching. On the evening of the 5th of August a confidential agent from Chattar Singh arrived at Sherwan, and tried to reassure Abbott of his master's good faith, offering to send him his son Utar Singh in proof thereof. This suggestion Abbott, suspecting some ulterior design, declined. Next morning a note arrived from Colonel Canara saying that the Sardar had ordered the troops and guns, which were then quartered in lines inside the town, to camp outside the walls; that he had declined to do so without Abbott's sanction, as it would lay them open to the charge of rebellion; that the Sardar had made efforts to win him over, but in vain; that he thought there might be a struggle for the guns; and that he begged instructions how to act. Hardly had Abbott read the letter when he received a report that Canara had been killed in the struggle that he had foreboded. The Sardar had sent two companies to seize the guns by force. Canara loaded them with grape, and ordered the artillerymen to fire. They refused, saying they were the Sardar's servants. Canara thereupon cut down the havildar, and applied the match with his own hand. It burnt priming, and the Colonel was immediately shot

down from behind. 'Thus died a man,' writes Abbott, 'who, whatever the defects of education and infirmities of nature, closed his career with an act of gallantry and loyalty unsurpassed by anything I can remember in history.' A small obelisk near the Haripur dak bungalow tells briefly the story of his heroic end.

Chattar Singh's Conduct.—Chattar Singh's conduct in the days following the murder left little doubt as to the side which he had finally decided to espouse. He paid the murderers a reward of 1,000 rupees; to Abbott's demands for their surrender replied evasively or not at all; called up some troops from Hassan Abdal; tried to induce Jahandad Khan, the chief of Amb, to bring Abbott with him to Haripur; and wrote letters, which Abbott intercepted, imploring the Maharajah of Kashmir to send a large force to his assistance. Yet for a time he contrived to hoodwink Sir Frederick Currie, the Resident at Lahore, who could not believe that the wily old Sikh, with so much at stake, would throw in his lot with the rebellious soldiery. Defending the murder of Canara, he pleaded that Abbott had roused the whole country against him, that an attack on Haripur was threatened, and that it was essential to move the guns out of the town. He could not be blamed if Canara, in forcibly resisting this measure, suffered the consequences of his folly and disobedience. Further, he complained that Abbott had from the first treated him with suspicion and distrust; that he would not consult him on matters of the administration, and regarded him as a mere cipher; that he openly espoused the cause of the people against the Sikhs; and that he was harassing the Pakhli troops and cutting off their supplies.

Abbott and the Lahore Resident.—The Resident tentatively adopted this view of the case, and wrote to Abbott, censuring him for taking the measures of which Chattar Singh complained, and saying that he did not understand how he called Canara's death a murder. He even

went so far as to depute his chief assistant, Mr. Cocks, to visit Hazara, hold an inquiry into the state of affairs there, and take the administration out of Abbott's hands; but, fortunately, hearing that the country was not safe, he cancelled the order a day or two later, and sent instead Jhanda Singh, the former Naib Nazim, who was then in Lahore, to try and induce Chattar Singh to make his peace with Abbott. He expressed the same opinion of his subordinate's conduct in a letter to the Governor-General; but Lord Dalhousie was less hasty in his judgment, and in writing home to the Court of Directors declined to express an opinion on the matter till fuller materials were available for forming one. Sir F. Currie's criticisms seem very unfair, and before long he saw reason to modify his blind faith in Chattar Singh; but to a certain extent Abbott laid himself open to misjudgments of this sort. He had a strong mixture of credulity and suspiciousness in his character. Gifted with a vivid imagination, and cast among a people who were adepts in treachery and intrigue, he lent an ear to every rumour, and was always fancying conspiracies and duplicities. 'He lived in a world of plot,' writes his friend and colleague, the late General Pearse,* 'and he kept many spies.' Events proved that he was in the main right about Chattar Singh, as Herbert Edwardes, who was at the first disposed to take a similar view of the case to Sir Frederick Currie, later freely acknowledged;† but it is not surprising that at first there should have been some

* General G. G. Pearse, C.B., Colonel Commandant of the Royal Horse Artillery, was Abbott's assistant in Hazara in 1851, and had a most enthusiastic admiration and affection for him. He is mentioned later on in this chapter as commanding a column in the Kagan expedition of 1852. He died in 1905, at the age of seventy-eight. He retained his interest in Hazara up to the last, and the Deputy Commissioner has in his possession some most interesting notes by Abbott on the people and leading men of the District, with General Pearse's comments thereon, which the latter made over to a native of Hazara who went to visit him at his home in the Isle of Wight a few years before his death.

† 'Year on the Punjab Frontier,' vol. ii., p. 537.

hesitation in accepting his interpretation of the facts, and it is probably true that Chattar Singh, like other Sikh leaders, was in a measure forced into rebellion by pressure from his soldiery. It is remarkable that, though habitually so distrustful of most of those around him (and he had good reason to be so in many cases), Abbott was yet able to win the confidence and devotion of the people. But they could see that he had their interests thoroughly at heart, and they could make allowances for the very difficult position in which he was placed.

Measures taken against the Sikh Troops.—Chattar Singh **Aug., 1848.** having now completely thrown off the mask, in Abbott's eyes at any rate, the latter took immediate measures to prevent, if he could, the arrival of reinforcements from the west or south, or a junction of the Haripur and Pakhli brigades. On the 8th of August he moved down from Sherwan to Nara at the foot of the Gandgar range, as being nearer Haripur and more suitable as a base for offensive operations, should troops march up in that direction. And on the 12th of August he dispatched Lieutenant Robinson to the Mangal tract to superintend the closing of the passes to the Pakhli force. Meanwhile he was cheered by the news that John Nicholson from Peshawar had seized the Attock fort, turned the Sikh company out of it, marched with his levies to the Margalla pass on the road from Rawalpindi to Hassan Abdal, and by a splendid piece of bluff succeeded in persuading the corps of Partab Singh, which was on its way to Haripur, to return to Rawalpindi. But orders from Lahore tied both Nicholson's and Abbott's hands. The Resident was still indulging in the futile hope of inducing Chattar Singh to make his submission, and when Jhanda Singh's mission failed, he dispatched Diwan Dina Nath for that purpose. In the meantime no offensive operations could be undertaken.

On the 20th of August Abbott received the news that a regiment and two guns from Haripur had started in

the direction of Pakhli. He immediately made a forced march of 30 miles with his levies to the Salhad pass, which connects the Rash and Haripur plains, but soon after he reached there he found his news was false, a note from Nicholson arriving to say that Chattar Singh had marched with the whole of the Haripur force for Hassan Abdal. In an hour Abbott was off again, and despite the burning sun and the fact that his levies were keeping the fast of the Ramzan, he marched 40 miles back in the Hassan Abdal direction, and eventually halted 3 miles to the rear of the Sikh army, which was encamped half-way between Hassan Abdal and Haripur. Nicholson and his levies were not far off, but, even had a joint attack on Chattar Singh offered any prospect of success, the orders from Lahore precluded it. Negotiations were opened with Chattar Singh and his son Utar Singh, and the former was told that, if he was willing to return to his allegiance and submit to have his conduct and his allegations investigated by the Resident, he would be allowed to do so. The wily Sikh professed compliance, but stipulated that Abbott's levies must be disbanded before the mutinous regiments returned to their duty. He was, in fact, only temporizing, for on the evening of the 25th, while Utar Singh was still conferring with Nicholson, Abbott, who was watching the Sikh camp, saw through his telescope a body of Jhanda Singh's horse galloping away. Further scrutiny showed that the camp itself was packed up ready for a move, and it was clear at last that Chattar Singh and Jhanda Singh had made up their minds to break off the negotiations and launch into open rebellion.

Abbott hastily collected his levies in the twilight and dashed off in the direction of a ravine, where he hoped to intercept the advance of the Sikhs ; but he found he was too late. As he approached, two howitzers opened fire on him from the backs of elephants, and he was compelled to draw his horsemen off. Meanwhile his footmen

had disappeared, and when, after a long search, they were found in a small ravine into which they had dived on the guns opening fire, neither encouragements nor taunts could induce them to attack the Sikh army, which was now well on its way. So in great disgust Abbott withdrew his men, and, joining Nicholson, accompanied him back to Hassan Abdal. Chattar Singh marched on to Usman Khatar to meet Partab Singh's force, which had returned from Rawalpindi and crossed the Margalla range, this time unimpeded.

Forcing of Dhamtaur Pass by the Sikhs and Extrication of the Pakhli Brigade.—On the 28th of August Abbott went back to Nara, while Nicholson remained to hover on the flanks of Chattar Singh. The latter, after spending a few days in somewhat aimless marching between the Indus and the Margalla range, turned in the direction of Haripur on the 7th of September, with the obvious intention of going to the rescue of the Pakhli brigade. On hearing the news, Abbott marched to the Salhad pass, and, posting 700 men there, proceeded to Dhamtaur. He was here joined by Nicholson's force of 900 matchlocks and 300 horsemen, which had overtaken and passed the Sikhs. A council of war was held, and though the minds of both officers misgave them, it was eventually decided to make a stand, Nicholson undertaking to face the advancing Sikhs, whilst Abbott's men repelled any sally that the garrison of the Nawanshahr fort might make on their rear, and co-operated against the enemy's flank.

On the 10th of September the Sikh army halted at Rajoia in the Dor plain, and very early on the morning of the 11th they began to advance up the Dhamtaur pass. The levies were roused and posted at various points on the hills flanking the pass, the most prominent of which is that lying between Dhamtaur and Salhad and known as Sarban. But Abbott's men were late in getting into position, and he lost some valuable time in whipping up

the stragglers. When eventually he was able to reach the front, he saw a body of irregular troops pushing towards a path that led over Sarban to the head of the Salhad pass. Fearing it was their design to seize that pass, he ordered fifty of his men to take possession of the village of Nagakki, half-way up the hill. But the levies held back, and Abbott himself had to lead them forward. Having posted them, he was returning to the main body, when some levies, who were stationed on another spur, cried out to him that if he retired they would all fly. He therefore remained in the front line on the crest of the hill. Meanwhile the Sikh troops had advanced within cannon-shot, and they opened fire on the spurs, singling out especially that where Abbott himself was. No damage was done, except to disturb still more the already shaken nerves of the timorous levies. But disaster was befalling in another point of the field of battle. On a high hill opposite where Abbott stood—one of the foremost of the defences—a force of 200 Peshawaris had been posted on the previous night. Looking towards it, Abbott was alarmed to see the top quite bare, and a force of 1,000 Sikhs making for it. The latter Nicholson saw also, and collecting fifty men, whom he could only induce to advance by presenting his pistol successively at the head of each, he led them up the hill as a reinforcement to the post which he imagined to be still on the top. He was dismayed to find the place deserted, and, leaving his fifty men there, he retired to make arrangements for the defence of other positions. The little party held its ground creditably till the Sikhs were within ten paces, and then fled precipitately. Their flight was the signal for that of the whole force. The day was lost, and all hope of preventing the release of the Pakhli brigade was gone. Disgusted with the behaviour of their levies, and realizing that it was useless to expect them to face the Sikhs again, Nicholson and Abbott withdrew their men and retired, the former to the neighbour-

hood of Hassan Abdal, and the latter to Nara, where, surrounded by the splendid loyalty of the Mishwanis of Sirikot and the Utmanzais of Khalabat, he could still feel personally safe.

Events following the Action at Dhamtaur.—The weeks that followed were for Abbott a period of comparative inactivity. All that he could do was to secure possession of a number of the small Sikh forts scattered about the District, which were, as a rule, peacefully evacuated by their garrisons, and to sink some of the boats on the Indus in order to prevent a junction between the Peshawar and Haripur brigades. He himself remained at Nara watching Chattar Singh's movements, and prepared to resist the attack that was threatened more than once. Meanwhile a welcome remittance of money arrived from the Maharajah of Kashmir, who thus proved that he had resisted the Sikh overtures.

Repulse of Chattar Singh at Salam Khand.—After halting some time at Haripur, Chattar Singh moved off in the direction of Attock, and camped in the Chach plain. On the 18th of October he marched back into the Hazara District along the left bank of the Indus, with the evident intention of relieving the small Sikh garrison of the fort at Salam Khand, the Tarkheli village inside the Gandgar hills, which has been mentioned earlier in this chapter. It was supposed that he would also push on to try and seize Sirikot. Abbott determined to resist these movements to the best of his ability, and he posted his levies on the hills overlooking the advancing force. This consisted of two columns with four guns and two howitzers carried by elephants. The right column, commanded by Chattar Singh in person, made its way without opposition to a hill south of the fort, but as it pushed forward from here it came under a hot fire, and was driven back with loss. The left column began to climb a hill to the north, along which a path to Sirikot ran, and where Abbott himself was posted. Under the eye of their

commander the levies gallantly disputed every inch of the ground, and at two o'clock in the afternoon the Sikhs, having won only the easiest slope, turned back and retired in good order. The garrison meanwhile had evacuated and fired the fort, and the whole force then marched away. They had lost some 200 men in killed and wounded, and Abbott only twenty or so. Among the latter was Ata Muhammad Khan, a leading Tarkheli, who, with four of his men, had charged the enemy sword in hand. Abbott must have felt great satisfaction in paying off some old scores against Chattar Singh in this successful little fight. He was materially assisted by Ingram, who displayed great gallantry in rallying the levies. Robinson had previously left for Kashmir.

Arrival of Dost Muhammad Khan.—In the following weeks Abbott spent his time between Nara and Sirikot. His isolated position caused the Resident at Lahore and the Governor-General great concern, but for the present they could not venture to send any force to his succour, however urgently he pressed for such a measure. Meanwhile a new cause for anxiety arose. Dost Muhammad Khan, the Amir of Kabul, marched down to Peshawar, where towards the end of October the troops had mutinied and compelled Major George Lawrence to seek refuge in flight, and proceeded to make common cause with Chattar Singh. On the 3rd of January, 1849, Lieutenant Herbert was obliged to abandon the Attock fort, and the Afghan army crossed the Indus. Abbott had tried to check Dost Muhammad Khan's advance in December, when he heard he had entered Peshawar, by writing him a letter expressing his confidence that the visit was a friendly one, mentioning that the Government of India was making vigorous preparations to crush the rebellion, and inviting his co-operation. To take on himself the rôle of the spokesman of the British Government in this unauthorized fashion was rather an audacious proceeding, and it roused the ire of the great Governor-General. 'This is really too

bad of Captain Abbott,' he wrote in answer to a letter from the Resident complaining of his 'incorrigible' subordinate; but it did some service in eliciting from Dost Muhammad Khan a reply, in which he made no secret of his hostile intentions, and of his design to acquire the Peshawar, Derajat, and Hazara Districts for himself.

Movements of the Afghan Troops.—The approach of the Afghans was a severer test of the loyalty of Abbott's following than the successes of the Sikhs. They loathed the latter, and their only temptation to join them was from the desire to be on the winning side; but the others were fellow-Muhammadans, with whom they had much more sympathy, and so, when Dost Muhammad Khan sent his son, Gulam Haidar Khan, with troops into Hazara, not a few were tempted and fell. The most notable of these deserters were Khanizaman, the leading Tarkheli, and Gulam Khan, Tarin. On the approach of the Afghans Abbott deemed it prudent to retire from Gandgar to Sherwan, where he was more secure from attack, and was in a better position to obstruct the projected invasion of Kashmir. He had not long been gone when the Afghans, guided by Khanizaman, scaled the Gandgar range and took possession of Sirikot. **Jan., 1849.**

The End of the War.—But the turning-point of the crisis had now been reached. Descending from the hills, the Afghan army crossed the Dor in the direction of Sherwan, and camped at Bharu Kot; but from here they were recalled to help the Sikhs in their desperate struggle with the British army which at last was advancing northwards. The crowning victory of Gujrat on the 21st of February, 1849, marked the collapse of their schemes, and, pursued by Gilbert, 'the flying General,' the Afghans hastily crossed the Indus, evacuated Peshawar, and fled back to their own country. Abbott could at last breathe freely, and, descending from his stronghold, he marched his levies to the Margalla ridge, whence, on the 14th of March, they could view in the distance the striking **Feb., 1849.**

scene of the surrender of Chattar Singh, Sher Singh, and the whole of their Sikh army to the British forces on the plain of Rawalpindi.

Acknowledgment of Abbott's Services.—In the acknowledgment of services rendered in the second Sikh war Abbott was not forgotten. In a dispatch to the Court of Directors after the battle of Gujrat the Governor-General wrote of him in the following terms : 'It is a gratifying spectacle to witness the intrepid bearing of this officer in the midst of difficulties of no ordinary kind, not merely maintaining his position, but offering a bold front, at one time to the Sikhs, at another to the Afghans, notwithstanding that religious fanaticism has been at work to induce the Muhammadan levies to desert his cause. He must have secured the attachment of the wild people amongst whom he has been thrown by his mild and conciliatory demeanour in times of peace, as well as by his gallantry as their leader in action, thus enhancing the credit of our national character, and preparing the way for the easy occupancy of an almost impregnable country.' And in the general order published at the close of operations Lord Dalhousie offered him his 'especial thanks' for 'the gallant stand' he had made in the hills of Hazara. He was rewarded also by the thanks of both Houses of Parliament and by a brevet majority. Seldom were eulogy, thanks, or reward better deserved.

A.D. 1849–1853. *Abbott First Deputy Commissioner of Hazara.*—The end of the Sikh war was followed by the annexation of the Punjab, and Abbott became the first Deputy Commissioner of Hazara. He remained in the District till 1853, and before he left had established an efficient administration, had revised his first settlement of the revenue, and generally had inaugurated an era of peace and prosperity which has continued almost without check ever since. Two events worth recording in this volume marked his reign as Deputy Commissioner. One was the first Black Mountain expedition, which will be described in the suc-

ceeding chapter ; the second was an expedition against the Saiads of Kagan.

The Kagan Expedition.—The latter took place in November, 1852, and was due to the following causes: The Gujar tenants of the Saiads had brought a number of complaints against their landlords of oppression and exaction, and in the investigation that Abbott conducted into the matter he was, perhaps, too ready to listen to the tales told by the Saiads' enemies. At any rate, the Saiads, of whom Zamin Shah of Bela Kawai was the most able and prominent, resented his interference, and began to exhibit signs of disaffection. Spies added fuel to Abbott's suspicions by reporting that the Saiads were intriguing with the Hindustani fanatics, and had sent emissaries to stir up the Dhunds, and he became convinced that they were meditating a rebellion. He detained Zamin Shah and others near his person at Haripur, and when the former attempted to escape back to Kagan, he rode after him and arrested him with his own hand. A letter from the Board of Administration, who thought, and probably with reason, that he had exaggerated the seriousness of the situation, decided him to release Zamin Shah from custody, and after a short time he allowed him to return to his home on security for good behaviour. But these proceedings had completely estranged the Saiads from the Government, and matters soon came to a crisis. A son of Zamin Shah, who was with Abbott, escaped to Kagan by night, and Zamin Shah himself refused to come in on a summons from Colonel Mackeson, the Commissioner of Peshawar, who happened to be in Hazara at the time. An expeditionary force of six regiments, six guns, and numerous tribal levies, was thereupon organized for the invasion of the Kagan valley, and placed under the command of Colonel Mackeson. Abbott was deputed to advance with one column up the valley from Balakot; Lieutenant Pearse led another through the passes entering Kagan from the Kashmir side; and

A.D. 1852.

a third, consisting of levies, marched up the Bhogarmang valley over the Musa ka Musalla ridge. The Saiads, as was to be expected in the circumstances, made no resistance, and surrendered peaceably. As a punishment, they were deported from the valley, and ordered to live in Pakhli for such a period as the Government might choose.

Abbott's Transfer from Hazara.—The Kagan expedition had the unforeseen result of leading to Abbott's departure from the District. Colonel Mackeson and he could not agree as to the policy to be pursued for retaining control of the valley. Abbott wished to build a police post at Kagan ; Mackeson objected to leaving an isolated post in an inaccessible country without first improving the communications. 'Roads before posts' was his motto. The contention waxed sharp between them, and while Mackeson kept his temper, Abbott's tone became somewhat insubordinate, and he addressed a long letter in defence of his proposals direct to the Board of Administration, which he asked Mackeson to forward. It was no doubt galling to one who had so long been virtual King of Hazara to have his views questioned and his projects thwarted in this manner. The difference was by no means the first they had had, nor, it may be added, was this the only occasion on which Abbott had criticized his superior officers in official correspondence with somewhat unnecessary freedom. It was obvious that one or the other must go, and as the Board and Governor-General entirely approved of Colonel Mackeson's attitude throughout the controversy, there was no doubt who it should be. Abbott was accordingly transferred, and Major(afterwards Sir Herbert) Edwardes was sent as Deputy Commissioner in his place.

It was rather a sad ending to his career in Hazara, and Abbott felt the blow deeply ; but he accepted the orders of Government with due submission, and made immediate preparations for his departure from the District that he loved. Of the people he took a characteristic farewell.

For three days and three nights he feasted them royally at Nara, the famous scene of Hari Singh's defeat and of his own gallant defiance of the Sikhs, and having spent all his substance on them, he left the District in March, 1853, with but a month's pay in his pocket, followed to Hassan Abdal by a weeping and lamenting crowd. We may readily pardon the egotism and acknowledge the truth of what he wrote to Colonel Mackeson, when the orders of Government were communicated to him. Speaking of his eighteen years' separation from civilized society, he said : 'Every hour of that solitude has been devoted to the service of Government and to promotion of the happiness of the thousands committed by Government to my care, and the British name has been honoured and respected wherever I have borne it.' Seldom, indeed, can a British officer have won so complete a victory over the hearts of the people that he ruled. Nicholson was worshipped and feared; Abbott was worshipped and loved. Even the 'Nikalsaini' fakirs—who numbered Haripur among their places of resort—are said to have placed him, as the incarnation of generosity, on scarcely a lower pedestal than their own unwilling patron. His name is often on the lips of the old men, who can just recollect him, and of the young men, who repeat what their fathers have told them. The worn and faded notes in his handwriting, that acknowledge the services of those who stood by him in the day of trouble, are treasured as heirlooms of great price; in the people's eyes he is the prince of 'sahibs'; never was there, nor ever will there be, his like. And so, leaving to Hazara an imperishable memory, he vanishes from the history of the Punjab and is numbered among its heroes.*

* Of Abbott's subsequent career there is not much to be told. He returned shortly to military service in his old regiment, being placed in charge of the Government gunpowder factory at Ishapore, and became a Colonel in 1857. His name does not appear in the annals of the Mutiny. He was made a C.B. in 1873, and a K.C.B. in 1894, the earlier as well as the later decoration being conferred after his retirement from the army. He spent the evening of his days at Ryde, in

A.D. 1853. *Founding of the Abbottabad Cantonment.*—On succeeding Abbott, one of Edwardes' first acts was to select a site for a new cantonment, that at Bharu Kot, where the troops had hitherto been quartered, being considered too hot and unhealthy. He fixed on the southern end of the Rash plain, and by a happy inspiration christened the place Abbottabad. The inauguration of the cantonment was not very auspicious. The regiment of native infantry which was to be stationed there flatly refused to build its own lines, the men saying 'they were not coolies.' Government thereupon ordered a court-martial on its commanding officer, but before the inquiry was concluded he died by his own hand. Another officer was sent up to take the command, and the men, ashamed of themselves, built their huts without further delay. Before, however, Edwardes' own house was completed, he was transferred to Peshawar to take the place of the murdered Commissioner, Colonel Mackeson.

A.D. 1857, 1858. *Hazara in the Time of the Mutiny.*—From 1853 to the time of the Indian Mutiny the history of Hazara is peaceful enough, the only event worth recording being the restoration of the Saiads of Kagan to their old home in 1855, which Edwardes, as Commissioner, effected. When the Mutiny broke out in May, 1857, the troops in Hazara consisted of the 2nd and 4th regiments of Sikh infantry and a mountain train of six guns, all concentrated at Abbottabad. The Deputy Commissioner was Major Becher, who had under his orders a police force of 150 horse and 60 foot, and 24 *zimburchis* or gunners attached to camel swivels. As soon as news of the outbreak was

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the Isle of Wight, and died in 1896, at the age of eighty-nine. The Khan of Khalabat, in whose family he always maintained a lively interest, has a fine photograph of him as a very old white-bearded man. He was twice married, and had a son by one wife and a daughter by the other. Besides the book of travel noted in the text he published several volumes of poems. Though somewhat exuberant and florid in his diction, he had literary abilities of no mean order, in this respect resembling his friend and contemporary, Herbert Edwardes.

received, three companies of the 2nd Sikhs were detached for the protection of the Murree hill-station, and on the 19th of May the 4th Sikhs marched for Delhi, whereby the strength of the infantry force at Abbottabad was reduced to 341 men. To supply the place of the absent force, and to provide for the security and peace of the District, orders were given to raise 150 horse and 500 foot levies from the people of the country, and for Major Becher to assume military command. The levies were enrolled by quotas from the chiefs and principal headmen, and brought their own arms. They were employed to a large extent in guarding the ferries of the Indus and all the principal roads of the District, and were instrumental in seizing many deserters, mutineers, and breeders of sedition, who were thus brought to justice.

On the 10th of June the Kumaon Gurkha battalion marched into Hazara, and three days after an opportunity occurred for testing the feeling of the force and for a first example to the country by the blowing from guns of two mutineers of the 55th Native Infantry, who had escaped from Hoti Mardan into the District. The court-martial which tried and condemned them was composed wholly of native officers. The execution took place on parade before all the troops and a large concourse of the country people, and the most perfect order prevailed.

Three days later the Kumaon regiment was called away to reinforce the army before Delhi, and, again reduced in military strength, the Deputy Commissioner proceeded to make the best arrangements he could for the security and defence of the District from invasion from without and disturbance within. The Haripur fort, which contained a large magazine, was well stored with provisions, and was garrisoned by a force of police and levies. The detached hill-forts and the police-stations along the Indus were also provisioned, strengthened, and put into repair. The chiefs of the District were summoned and assured of the reliance placed in their aid and

fidelity, and by daily intercourse and encouragement the effects of the machinations and lying reports of sedition-mongers were counteracted, and the people secured firmly on our side.

Flight and Surrender of the Mutineers of the 55th Native Infantry.—An opportunity for the proving of their loyalty soon presented itself. The 55th Native Infantry, after mutinying at Hoti Mardan, had escaped into Swat. After a short sojourn they were expelled by the Swathis, and rumours reached Major Becher of their desperate resolution to proceed across the hills to the territory of the Maharajah of Kashmir, in the forlorn hope of receiving welcome and sympathy from the soldiery of that State. As their route lay either through Hazara or along its border, the chiefs and headmen of the District were warned to be on the alert to oppose their passage. On the 23rd of June Major Becher heard that the mutineers, numbering 600 men, were across the border in Allai, and were asking for a safe passage through Konsh. They were armed with muskets or rifles and swords, but had little clothing, and were accompanied by confidential messengers of the Akhund of Swat, who bore letters directing all good Muhammadans to help them, and denouncing those who did not. Major Becher thereupon called on Muhammad Amin Khan, the Swathi chief of Garhi Habibullah Khan, who held the Konsh valley in *jagir*, on the headmen of Kagan, and others, to collect their followers and resist the progress of the mutineers through the passes. On the 24th of June he himself proceeded with a detachment of the 2nd Sikhs and some police and levies to Dhudial, in the Pakhli plain, whence he could control all the principal roads and approaches. On the 25th the mutineers advanced towards Konsh, but, seeing the passes occupied in hostile fashion by the people of the country, their courage failed them, and they turned back, determining at all hazards to attempt the difficult road near the Indus and through Kohistan.

On learning of their altered route, Major Becher wrote to the Saiads of Allai and to the Kohistanis, urging them to aid us in opposing the passage of men who had been traitors to their salt. His letters had the desired effect. Harassed by attacks from all sides, they struggled on through that wild and inhospitable country, a dwindling band of desperate men, till, surmounting the ridge that divides Kohistan from the Kagan valley, they crossed the Kunhar river early in July, and entered a deep nullah some two miles to the south of the lake called Lulu Sar. It led to one of the passes into Kashmir, but at that time of the year this must have been almost blocked by snow. Even were it practicable, however, most of them were too weary, footsore, and famished to attempt it. Near the shore of Dudibach Sar, a small lake which lies at the head of the nullah, they surrendered, after a faint resistance, to the Saiads, Gujars, and Kohistanis, who were hovering round their flanks. One hundred and twenty-four were here made prisoners, and shortly after forty-three more, who had made their escape, were seized and sent in by the Kashmir Government. Most of these men were executed in different parts of the District, and thus was accomplished the retribution of the ill-fated 55th regiment. The nullah that witnessed their surrender bears now the name of *Purbiala ka katha* or *Purbianar*, 'the nullah of the Purbias.'

After this Major Becher's force returned to cantonments in Abbottabad, and matters remained quiet and undisturbed in Hazara, though the delay in the fall of Delhi operated here, as in other parts of the Punjab, to unsettle the minds of the people, and to lead them to regard as possible the downfall of the English power. One effect of this was a combination of some of the Karral tribe in Hazara, and of the Dhunds in the Rawalpindi District, for the purpose of assaulting and sacking Murree. But at the last moment Hassan Ali Khan, the Karral chief, was (as related in Chapter II.) dissuaded by his relatives

from committing himself ; the Rawalpindi Dhunds were left to make the attempt alone, and, forewarned by a Dhund from Lora in the Hazara District, the authorities at Murree had no difficulty in repelling the attack. Thenceforward, though a second detachment of three companies was dispatched from Abbottabad for the protection of Murree, and he was thus left with but a nominal force of troops, Major Becher was able to keep his District in perfect control.

History of the District Subsequent to the Mutiny.—Of the internal history of Hazara there is not much more to be said, for the subsequent disturbances in Agror can be dealt with more conveniently in connexion with the frontier matters discussed in the following chapter. The opening of the hill-stations and cantonments in the Galis about the year 1870 brought the District more in contact with the outer world, and increased its prosperity ; the first Regular Settlement, which was completed in 1873, set at rest a number of conflicting claims as to the ownership of estates, and abolished many causes of discontent. The metalling of the Hassan Abdal-Abbottabad road in 1892 to 1894, the construction of the road up the Kagan valley to Chilas in 1895 to 1898, and the extension of the tonga road through Mansehra to Garhi Habibullah Khan and Kashmir in 1900 and the following years, removed the complaints as to the District's inaccessibility. In 1900, as mentioned in the preceding chapter, its area was swelled by the transfer of the Attock tahsil from the then unwieldy Rawalpindi District ; but in the following year, on the formation of the North-West Frontier Province, Hazara proper was included in the new Administration, and Attock remained with the Punjab. The Chief Commissioner of the Province has now his summer residence at Nathia Gali, and Abbottabad itself, as the head-quarters of a brigade of troops, has much increased in size and importance. A list of the Deputy Commissioners of the District from annexation up to the year 1907 will be found in Appendix VI.

CHAPTER VI

THE HAZARA FRONTIER

The Tribes on the Hazara Border.—From the Peshawar District to Chilas the western border of Hazara is fringed by a number of independent hill tribes, inhabiting a maze of wild hills and narrow valleys that drain into the Indus. These have been brought into relations of varying closeness with the British Administration, and no account of the District would be complete without some description of them and of the occasions when they have come into collision with us.

Utmanzais.—Starting, then, from the boundary of the Swabi tahsil, we first encounter the Utmanzais, who live at Khabbal, Kaya, and other villages on the right bank of the Indus facing Tarbela and the Kulai tract, at the base of a spur of the Mahaban hill, which the imaginative Abbott erroneously identified with Alexander the Great's Aornos. They are nearly related to the Utmanzais on the left bank, and indeed the two own land in each other's territory. There is little difficulty in controlling them, for if they are at all obstreperous a blockade soon brings them to their senses.

Hindustani Fanatics.—In the Utmanzai country, facing the village of Tawi in Kulai, is the site of what was once the well-known village of Sitana, the home of the Hindustani fanatics. The latter, a band of discontented and bigoted Muhammadans from Hindustan, who had gathered round the banner of Said Ahmad, a native of Bareilly,

and made themselves a power on the border, retired here in 1830, after the defeat and death of their leader at Balakot, which have been described in the preceding chapter. The colony which they then established was to be a thorn in our side for many years to come.

Amazais and Amb.—North of the Utmanzais are the Amazais, a section of the Utmanzai Yusafzais, who hardly touch the British frontier, but march with the trans-Indus territory of the Tanaoli Khan of Amb. The latter lies for a few miles on the right bank of the Indus, and is of small extent, comprising a few villages only, of which Amb is the chief. Almost opposite this lies Kirpilian, in the extreme north-west corner of the Badhnak tract in the Haripur tahsil.

Mada Khels, Hassanzais and Akazais.—Keeping the right bank of the river, we come next to the Mada Khels, who occupy the northern slopes of the Mahaban range. Beyond these again are the Hassanzais, who inhabit the country on both sides of the Indus, those cis-Indus occupying the southernmost portion of the western slopes of the Black Mountain. North of the Hassanzais, but living almost wholly cis-Indus on other of the Black Mountain slopes, are the Akazais. These three tribes are all sections of the Isazai clan of Yusafzai Pathans, Isa, the second son of Yusaf, being reputed to have had five sons, of whom three were named Hassan, Aka, and Mada respectively. The southern portion of the cis-Indus Hassanzai country is separated from the Hazara border by the feudal territory of the Khan of Amb, but the northern portion and the country of the Akazais march with Agror, the main ridge of the Black Mountain forming the boundary.

Chigharzais and Pariariwals.—To the north of the Akazais, but not touching British territory at any point, are the Chigharzais, a section of the Malizai clan of the Yusafzais, Chighar being a son of Mali, who was a fourth son of Yusaf. Between these and Northern Agror are the



A HASSANZAI JIRGA AT OGHI.

Pariari Saiads, who occupy two glens on the eastern face of the Black Mountain ridge. They have admitted a number of Pathan and Swathi settlers to their villages, including the Basi Khel Chigharzais, who have established a strong hold on part of their territory.

Tikari, Daishi, Nandihar and Allai.—We now leave the Pathan country, and, turning east, come to Tikari, lying north of Agror, a fertile valley inhabited by Swathis. Mainly to the north of Pariari and Tikari, but with its southern boundary touching the northern end of Agror, lies Daishi, a succession of bold forest-covered spurs with deep intervening valleys, also inhabited by Swathis. Between Daishi and the Konsh and Bhogarmang valleys of Hazara is Nandihar, consisting of two long open glens which drain into the Indus at Thakot. This, too, is Swathi country, as also is Allai, which comes next to the north, and which is separated on its southern border from the head of the Bhogarmang valley by the lofty range of Musa ka Musalla.

Kohistan.—North of Allai is Kohistan, the mountainous country between the Indus and the Kagan valley, inhabited by a Muhammadan race that appear to be Hindus in origin, and speak a language of their own resembling that of Gilgit and Ladakh.

Chilas.—East of them, and marching with the northern end of the Kagan valley, is Chilas, whose people seem akin to the Kohistanis, but speak a somewhat different language. Neither the Kohistanis nor the Chilasis have ever given serious trouble on the Hazara border, and with the Chilas expedition of 1893 we are not concerned. They are peaceful traders and graziers, and in their queer rounded caps, coarse *pattu* jackets and knickerbockers, and primitive sandals and gaiters, are often to be met with in the Kagan glen.

Internal Administration of the Tribes.—The tribes above described, excepting the Tanaolis, are all very democratic in their character, and settle their affairs by the *jirga*

system. But the Hassanzais have a nominal chief who is known as the Khan of the Isazais, though his influence is confined in the main to his own section of the tribe, the Khankhels.

A.D. 1851. *First Collision with Trans-border Tribes—The Murder of Messrs. Carne and Tapp.*—The first occasion on which we came into collision with any of the trans-border people was in 1851. In the autumn of that year two officers of the Salt Department, named Carne and Tapp, entered the cis-Indus territory of Jahandad Khan, the Khan of Amb, with a view, apparently, to obtain information as to the paths by which Kohat salt found its way into Hazara and Kashmir. This step of theirs was a very rash one, and was against the orders of the Board of Administration and the advice of Major Abbott, the Deputy Commissioner. When near the Hassanzai limits, but still within the Nawab's territory, the ill-fated officers were attacked and murdered by a band of armed Hassanzais. It was a cruel act, due, it would seem, to motives of robbery and fanaticism ; at any rate, it was quite unprovoked, since, even had the preventive salt line been extended to these regions, it would not have affected the tribe. Jahandad Khan and his Minister were at first suspected of complicity by Major Abbott, but the Khan, at any rate, had apparently nothing to do with the affair, and he proved his loyalty by at once delivering up such Hassanzais as he could find in his territory as hostages to the British authorities. The tribe immediately made war upon him, laid waste his border villages, seized his forts of Chamberi and Shinglai, stirred up his subjects to rebellion, and at last reduced him to considerable straits. Lord Dalhousie was at first very reluctant to take active measures against a tribe which he could not permanently control ; but it was necessary to support Jahandad Khan, and to vindicate the British name, so orders were at length issued for the punishment of the offenders.

The First Black Mountain Expedition.—Accordingly, in December, 1852, an expeditionary force under the command of Colonel Mackeson, the Commissioner of Peshawar, assembled at Shergarh in Feudal Tanawal. It consisted of detachments from the Guides and 1st Sikhs, two Dogra regiments from the Kashmir army, some mountain guns, and a number of levies and police. It was formed into three columns, one of which was under Colonel Napier (subsequently Lord Napier of Magdala) and a second under Major Abbott. The Hassanzais offered little resistance, and the troops, having scaled the Black Mountain and burnt a number of villages, returned to British territory in January, 1853. Their losses were only some fifteen killed and wounded, and the Hassanzai losses were not much greater. But the damage inflicted on the latter by the destruction of their villages and their stores of grain had been considerable. It was held, therefore, that they had been sufficiently punished, and the hostages which were in our hands were sent back to them. **Dec., 1852, and Jan., 1853.**

Measures against Hindustani Fanatics.—On their return from the Black Mountain the troops came into conflict with the Hindustani fanatics, who had made common cause with the Hassanzais against the Khan of Amb, and had seized a small fort of his named Kotla on the right bank of the Indus. On the 6th of January, 1853, Major Abbott was sent with a column across the river from Kirpilian to attack them; but they did not await his arrival, and fled, pursued by the Tanaolis, who cut up thirty or forty of them. They also evacuated Sitana, but Colonel Mackeson, thinking that enough had been achieved, left their head-quarters alone, and the troops recrossed the river. **Jan., 1853.**

Expedition against Hindustani Fanatics.—It was not many years, however, before we were again in collision with the Hindustanis. In October, 1857, they attacked Lieutenant Horne, Assistant Commissioner of Mardan, **A.D. 1858.**

on the Peshawar border, and it was determined this time to root them out of their stronghold. Accordingly, in May, 1858, a force under General Sir Sydney Cotton, after punishing the Khudu Khel tribe, who had been in league with the Hindustanis, marched to Khabbal, the Utmanzai village opposite Tarbela, with the object of attacking Sitana. Meanwhile Major Becher, the Deputy Commissioner of Hazara, moved down the left bank of the Indus with some mountain guns and detachments of the 2nd Sikhs and the 6th and 12th Punjab Infantry. This force crossed the river early on the morning of the 4th of May, and a general and successful attack was then delivered. The Hindustanis, dressed in their best for the occasion, fought fanatically, and fifty of them were killed. The villages of Upper and Lower Sitana were destroyed by the troops, who then retired to British territory. Their total losses were thirty-five killed and wounded.

A.D. 1863. *Further Measures against the Hindustani Fanatics—The Ambela Expedition.*—The Gaduns of the Peshawar border and the Utmanzais bound themselves to prevent the Hindustanis from returning to Sitana, and the latter retired to Malka, on the north of the Mahaban mountain. But in 1863 they reoccupied Sitana, and, as no effort to stop them had been made by the Gaduns and Utmanzais, the tribes were placed under blockade by troops, and levies were posted along the Indus and on the Amb and Peshawar borders. This measure, however, hardly had the desired effect. Open acts of hostility were committed by the Hindustanis and the Hassanzais, and the border continued in a very disturbed state. It was accordingly determined to make an effort to rid the frontier effectually of the cause of all the trouble, and what was thereafter known as the Ambela Expedition was sanctioned. With the details of this campaign we are not concerned, for the scene of operations was at some distance from the Hazara frontier, and the tribes immediately on that frontier were overawed by the troops that were stationed

at Darband and Tarbela to watch them. The results as regards the Hindustanis were that they lost a number of men, that they were again expelled from Sitana, and that their stronghold at Malka was destroyed. And, for the future, the Gaduns, Utmanzais, Mada Khels, and Amazais executed agreements promising to exclude them from their limits.

The Second Black Mountain Expedition—Disturbances in Agror.—The next important event in the trans-border history of Hazara is the Black Mountain Expedition of 1868. The Hassanzais had risen in 1863, and made some attacks on the Amb troops, and it had been intended to punish them after the Hindustanis had been dealt with; but, the Ambela campaign proving a bigger business than had been anticipated, they were left alone, and subsequently they came in to the Deputy Commissioner of Hazara and made their peace with Government. They kept this till July, 1868, when, in company with some Akazais, Chigharzais, and Pariari Saiads, they made an attack on the police who had been quartered at Oghi in the Agror valley. They were driven off after a hand-to-hand fight, leaving six dead, but they succeeded in carrying away with them four policemen and considerable plunder. The attack appeared to have been instigated by the Khan of Agror, Ata Muhammad Khan, who had resented the location of a police post in the valley as diminishing his dignity and authority, and had also a grievance in having been deprived—under the abortive Settlement which preceded that of 1872—of proprietary rights which were his undoubted due. He hoped now to be called in to calm the storm that he had raised and to secure the withdrawal of the police. But he was quickly disappointed. The Peshawar Mountain Battery and 350 men of the 5th Gurkhas under Colonel Rothney marched immediately to Oghi, and the Khan was seized and deported to Abbottabad.

A.D. 1868.

For some days the troops had to act mainly on the

defensive, though reinforcements were hurried up. The offending clans had been joined by Akazais and some trans-border Swathis, and they proceeded to attack and burn several villages in the valley. The local levies proved worthless, excepting the Tanaolis of Amb, who, under their Khan, Muhammad Akram Khan, Jahandad Khan's successor, displayed great gallantry. On the 12th of August Colonel Rothney, hearing that the enemy were planning a combined attack on his camp, moved out against them where they were collected at the base of the Khabbal hill and along the spur running down to Manchura. They were driven up the hill with little resistance, and eventually fled in all directions. A feature of the engagement was a bold dash up the slope over seemingly impossible ground, made without waiting for orders, by Akram Khan and his Tanaoli sowars. Thenceforth no further attempts were made by the enemy in the Agror valley. But they had succeeded in doing considerable damage, twenty-one villages in all being burnt, and the total casualties of the British force being sixty-four.

Operations of the Expeditionary Force.—This conduct was not to be tolerated, and no time was lost in collecting an imposing force to inflict the necessary punishment. It being judged unwise to weaken the garrisons on the Peshawar border, troops were hurried up from the Punjab and the North-West Provinces, some remarkable marches being performed in spite of the great heat. So fierce was this that on the way to Abbottabad the 6th regiment had thirty-eight men struck down by heat apoplexy, of whom eight died. By the end of September a force of 12,500 men and twenty-six guns were collected at various posts on the Hazara frontier under the command of Major General Wilde. To such an army the offending tribes could naturally offer no effectual resistance, and several of them hastened to make their submission. The Hassanzais had early in the day been won over

by the Khan of Amb, and took no part in the affair of the 12th of August; the relatives of the Khan of Agror, who had fled across the border, surrendered themselves, and the Swathis of Tikari and Nandihar spontaneously offered payment of fines to expiate their guilt. But the Chigharzais, Akazais, Pariari Saiads, and Swathis of Daishi for a short time remained recalcitrant. The troops advanced from Oghi on the 3rd of October, easily brushed aside all resistance, and established themselves on the main ridge of the Black Mountain above Pariari, even bringing elephants up to the top of the Machai peak, 9,800 feet in height. It only needed the burning of a few Saiad villages to bring the tribes to their senses, and they hastened to make their peace. Major Pollock, the Commissioner of Peshawar, who was the chief political officer with the force, treated them very leniently. The Akazais were told that the village of Shahtut in the Agror valley, which, though inside British territory, had been held by them rent-free and as independent territory, would be considered as a British possession and assessed to revenue. The others, apparently, were let off altogether, being merely required to provide hostages for their good behaviour during the march of the troops through their country. The Commissioner justified these very easy terms by arguing that on an occasion like this the object should be rather to effect what was called 'lifting up the *purdahs*' than 'to kill numbers of the tribesmen, or unceremoniously to impose fines, or to unroof or burn villages or destroy crops.' The tribes must have been astonished at the moderation of the Government when the whole of their country lay at its mercy, but it is to be feared, as the sequel shows, that they were not as grateful as they should have been. The terms having been settled, the troops marched through Pariari, Tikari, and Nandihar, the only mishaps being a futile attack by the Pariari Saiads on the rearguard, as a punishment for which their village of

Garhi was burnt. On the 20th of October the force re-entered British territory by the Konsh valley, and returned to Agror. Thus ended the second Black Mountain expedition. The total casualties in the operations were thirty-four men killed and wounded.

A.D. 1869. *Events Subsequent to the Second Black Mountain Expedition.*—Events soon proved that the lenient policy pursued was hardly a success. In July, 1869, two hamlets in Agror—Barchar and Guldheri—were burnt by a party of Hassanzais, Pariari Saiads, and Akazais, four of the villagers being killed and seventeen wounded. In August the village of Jaskot was attacked, and several villagers and a police constable killed. In consequence of these outrages a fresh force under Colonel Rothney moved into the Agror valley, and on the 7th of October the village of Shahtut, belonging to the Akazais, was destroyed, its lands were declared to be confiscated, and a formal proclamation was issued prohibiting the Akazais from occupying it again without the permission of Government. It was also determined that a force should be permanently stationed at Agror sufficient to meet all attacks and follow up raiders beyond the British border; and by order of the Supreme Government the valley was removed from the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts and the operation of the general laws.

A.D. 1870. During the winter of 1869-1870 Agror was unmolested, but as soon as the snows melted on the Black Mountain the raids recommenced. On the 9th of April the village of Barchar was attacked by Akazais and the headmen killed. On the 15th the village of Sambulbhut was burnt by Akazais and Khankhel Hassanzais, and on the 23rd the village of Bholu shared the same fate. These villages were all situated on the slopes of the Black Mountain, but the British troops who were camped in the valley were powerless to prevent the raids, and all Colonel Rothney could do was to destroy the crops round Shahtut.

Restoration of Khan of Agror and Subsequent Events.— A.D. 1870. In the summer of 1870 the Khan of Agror, whom the inquiries of the Settlement officer, Captain Wace, proved, as above mentioned, to have been unjustly deprived of ancient rights in the valley, was pardoned and allowed to return to his home from his exile in Lahore. General feeling on the border being one of satisfaction at his restoration, for a time all went well. And late in the autumn the troops were all withdrawn, with the exception of a small detachment, which was stationed at Oghi. But in June, 1871, the Akazais, who were dissatisfied at A.D. 1871. not being allowed to rebuild Shahtut and at not getting any share in the Khan's property, raided and burnt three outlying hamlets, Kongu, Guldheri, and Bholu. In retaliation the Khan sent 300 men across the border to burn a village called Ali Khan, held by the Akazais, in Tikari, an unauthorized act which called down upon him the grave displeasure of Government.

In 1872 a body of Hassanzais were about to force a A.D. 1872. passage through Agror to attack the Swathis of Daishi, but, on a reinforcement of British troops being sent out, they abandoned the attempt. During the same year several offences were committed by the Akazais on the border, but were not of a serious nature. In July, 1873, A.D. 1873. some Akazais and Chigharzais raided the village of Barchar in revenge for the confiscation of Shahtut. During 1874 A.D. 1874. the Akazais continued to give trouble, and in May, 1875, they combined with some Hassanzais and Chigharzais to A.D. 1875. attack the village of Ghanian, but were beaten off by Gulam Haidar Khan, the son of the Khan, and a small body of police.

Submission of Akazais and Hassanzais.—After this a resort to military coercion appeared inevitable, but in September, 1875, the Akazai *jirga* came in to the Deputy Commissioner and made a complete and unreserved submission. They renounced all claim to Shahtut, expressed regret for the past, and promised to respect

British territory and British subjects in future. In December the Hassanzais also came in and made similar promises.

Death of Ata Muhammad Khan, Khan of Agror.—Towards the end of the year Ata Muhammad Khan, to whose intrigues many of the troubles on this section of the frontier had been due, died, and was succeeded by his son, Ali Gauhar Khan, the present titular Khan of Agror, then a minor.

A.D. 1880. *Rise of Hashim Ali Khan, Khan of the Hassanzais.*—For some years after this settlement the Akazais and Hassanzais gave little trouble. But in 1880 an event occurred which was to bring into prominence a man who soon became, and still remains, the mainspring of all our trouble with the Black Mountain tribes. In February of that year Ahmad Ali Khan, the Khan of the Hassanzais, was murdered by his rival Firoz Khan. A conflict then arose between the latter and the Khan's younger brother, Hashim Ali Khan, who was supported by the Mada Khels, and Firoz Khan was forced to seek refuge in the territory of the Khan of Amb. In March, 1882, Hashim Ali Khan surprised the village of Kulakka, in British territory near Oghi, and killed Muzaffar Khan and Samundar, maternal relatives of Firoz Khan, whom he charged with complicity in his brother's murder. A fine of 2,000 rupees was imposed on him, and the Hassanzais were informed that as a tribe they were responsible for their chief's good conduct. The fine was not paid, but the Hassanzais continued quiet for some time.

A.D. 1884-1887. *Disturbances in Agror fomented by Abdulla Khan, the Khan's Cousin.*—A new cause of trouble, however, had arisen on the border. The late Khan of Agror, Ata Muhammad Khan, had been on bad terms with his cousin, Allahdad Khan, who, before the annexation of the Punjab, had acted as his guardian during his minority. The enmity descended to their sons, Ali Gauhar Khan and Abdullah Khan respectively, and at the end of 1882

the former petitioned the Deputy Commissioner to deprive Abdullah Khan of the lease of six villages in Agror which he had hitherto enjoyed. In April, 1884, in direct violation of a promise which he had given to the Deputy Commissioner, Abdullah Khan left his residence at Dilbori and crossed the border into territory belonging to the Pariari Saiads. Aided by Akazais, Saiads, and Chigharzais, he at once began to foment disturbances. Several raids were committed on villages in Agror, the most serious being an attack by Akazais on the village of Belian in June, 1884, when the Swathis of Belian had eighteen and the raiders twenty casualties. In consequence of these outrages, by orders issued in July, 1884, the allowance of 592 rupees granted by Government to Abdullah Khan was confiscated; he was proclaimed an outlaw, and the Akazais, the Pariari Saiads, and their Chigharzai tenants were placed under blockade. In September the Chigharzais made an attack on the village of Ghanian, but were dispersed by a detachment of the 5th Gurkhas from the Oghi fort under Lieutenant Barrett, and the Chigharzai tribe as a whole was thereupon included in the blockade.

In November some Chigharzais and Pariari Saiads, accompanied by Abdullah Khan and his brothers, attacked Dilbori, but were repulsed with loss by the villagers and the Khan of Agror's levies. In the following year (1885) A.D.
matters became more quiet, and it seemed as if the tribes 1885.
were losing heart in Abdullah Khan's cause. In October full *jirgas* of Chigharzais and Pariari Saiads came in to Abbottabad and made their submission. A fine of 800 rupees was imposed on the former and 600 rupees on the latter, and on their payment in January, 1886, thirty members of the two tribes, who had been detained as hostages at Rawalpindi since March, 1885, were released. Both tribes gave hostages for their future good behaviour, and these were sent to Abbottabad. The Akazais did not join in this submission, and they con-

tinued under blockade throughout 1886 and 1887. During this period they gave little trouble, though the
A.D. blockade affected them but slightly. In the year 1886
1886. neither Chigharzais nor Pariari Saiads committed any offence on the border, but they continued ostentatiously to espouse the cause of Abdullah Khan, and it soon became apparent that the very lenient settlement of the previous
A.D. year was a failure. In July, 1887, Abdullah Khan, with
1887. his brothers and a party of Chigharzais, raided the village of Bagrian, and carried off a number of cattle, most of which were rescued by the villagers, after a fight in which both sides lost some men. In August some Chigharzai tenants of the Pariari Saiads murdered a villager of Ghanian, in consequence of which the Pariari hostages were incarcerated in jail and a fine was imposed on the tribe.

A.D. *Filling up the Cup.*—The cup of offence was now nearly
1888. full. The Black Mountain tribes had been treated with extreme leniency in the expedition of 1868 and in the nineteen years following. Their punishments had been almost nominal, and they must have begun to think that they might indulge in any number of pin-pricks with comparative immunity. But certain events in the first half of the year 1888 at last convinced the Government of India that more decisive action was necessary. In January the followers of Hashim Ali Khan raided the hamlet of Udigraon in the Agror valley, killed two British subjects, and kidnapped two others. A demand for the unconditional surrender of the two captives was ignored, and when reminded of the joint responsibility of their tribe the Hassanzai *maliks* sent a defiant answer. Evidence was subsequently forthcoming which seemed to implicate the Khan of Agror and his agent, Fazl Ali Khan, in the raid, and a detailed investigation resulted in the arrest of the latter and the deportation of the Khan to Lahore. In addition to this the Punjab Government proposed that active measures should be taken against

the Khankhel Hassanzais and the Pariari Saiads, but the Government of India did not think there was sufficient justification for such a step, and instead a blockade was, in April, imposed on the Hassanzais, the Pariari Saiads, and their Chigharzai tenants.

The Deaths of Major Battye and Captain Urmston.—A serious affair, however, which occurred on the 18th of June induced the Government to reconsider the matter. Early on the morning of that day Major Battye of the 5th Gurkhas, with sixty men of his regiment and nineteen police, and accompanied by Captain Urmston of the 6th Punjab Infantry, left Oghi fort and ascended the Barchar spur to make himself acquainted with the features of the surrounding country. Shortly before reaching the crest, and while still within British territory, the party was fired on by some Gujar graziers, who were tenants of the Akazais. Not returning the fire, Major Battye pushed on towards Chittabat, still keeping within British territory; then, finding the enemy were becoming more numerous and their fire heavier, he decided to retreat, and accordingly the retirement of the party was ordered, covered by a small rearguard. A havildar in the rearguard having been wounded, the two British officers went back to his assistance with a stretcher; while they were putting the wounded man into it the enemy charged, and in the hand-to-hand fight which ensued both of them were killed. The main body meanwhile, unaware of what had occurred, had continued the retirement, but a subadar who had been with the officers succeeded in escaping, and, rejoining his men, led them back and recovered the bodies. Four Gurkhas and six of the enemy were also killed in this affair. The Khankhel Hassanzais, under Hashim Ali Khan, and the Pariari Saiads, on hearing the firing, had joined in the attack, and during the following days large bodies of Hassanzais and Akazais, with a contingent from Pariari, assembled on the ridges of the Black Mountain with the idea of attacking

June 18, 1888.

Agror. They were joined on the 27th of June by Abdullah Khan, with 120 Hindustani fanatics from Maidan near Palosi on the Indus ; but eventually it was decided to take no action for the present, and the gathering dispersed.

A.D. 1888. *Third Black Mountain Expedition.*—The first retaliatory steps taken by Government were to include the Hindustanis of Maidan in the blockade and to arrest the Khan of Agror, who had been removed from Lahore to Murree, under Regulation III. of 1818. But more active measures were called for, and, in response to the urgent recommendations of the Punjab Government, the Government of India decided that a punitive expedition was necessary. Accordingly a force of over 12,000 men and twenty-four guns, under the command of Major-General McQueen, was collected. It comprised four battalions of British infantry, nine battalions of Native Infantry, two battalions of Kashmir troops, and a detachment from the Khaibar Rifles. By the 1st of October the troops were concentrated at Oghi and Darband respectively, and on the 4th of October, as the offending tribes had not complied with the terms of Government, operations began. Of these terms the chief were the delivery of the two kidnapped British subjects, the payment of a fine of 5,300 rupees, and the acceptance of complete responsibility for the behaviour of their Khan, by the Hassanzais ; the surrender of Hashim Ali Khan by the Khankhel section ; the payment of a fine of 4,000 rupees and the acceptance of joint responsibility with the Hassanzais for the behaviour of the Khan, by the Akazais; the payment of a fine of 1,500 rupees by the Saiads and Chigharzais of Pariari, and of a fine of 1,000 rupees by the residents in Tikari. The Hassanzais, Akazais, and Pariariwals were also required to give hostages for their good conduct. The expeditionary force was divided into four columns, which scoured the Black Mountain country, burnt a number of villages, including the Hindustani colony of Maidan, destroyed large stores of grain and fodder, and

altogether did damage estimated as amounting to half a lakh of rupees. The only serious opposition encountered was in an action at Kot Kai on the Indus, where a body of fanatics, consisting mostly of the Hindustanis, made a desperate rush against the British line, losing eighty-eight of their number in the attempt. On the 19th of October the Akazais submitted, and accepted unreservedly all the conditions imposed, and on the 30th the Hassanzais followed their example, and paid up their fine, which had meanwhile been enhanced to 7,500 rupees.

Visit to Tikari and Pariari.—The force then turned its attention to Tikari and Pariari. The Tikariwals quickly paid up their fine of 1,000 rupeees, but the Pariariwals were less submissive, and in consequence their villages of Garhi and Kopra were burnt. Thakot on the Indus, which had been left untouched by the expedition of 1868, was also visited.

Visit to Allai—Offences of the Allaiwals.—After this a movement was made through Nandihar into the difficult country of Allai. Against the Swathis resident in this tract there was a somewhat long score. In August, 1868, they had attacked a survey party working in Bhogarmang under Mr. G. B. Scott, and it had been intended to punish them in the expedition of that year, but the idea was subsequently abandoned and a fine of 500 rupees was imposed instead, which, however, was not paid. In 1874 a raid upon a party of Kohistanis within British territory was punished by the seizure of a number of Allaiwals and a blockade of the tribe. Their *jirga* thereupon came in to the Deputy Commissioner for the first time in their history and made their submission. In 1877 a raid on the village of Battal, near the head of the Konsh valley, necessitated another blockade, which continued in force for several years. In 1880 a number of Hindus, who had been carried off in the Battal raid, were given up by the *jirga*, and in 1881 the latter ransomed some prisoners who were in our hands for 500 rupees; but the

other terms imposed on them—viz., the payment of a fine of 5,000 rupees for the Battal raid and of the fine of 500 rupees due for the attack on Mr. Scott, and the submission of their fanatical chief, Arsala Khan—remained unfulfilled. The blockade, however, was shortly afterwards removed, and their punishment deferred. Even now that opportunity offered, little was done except to burn and destroy Pokal, Arsala Khan's village. A certain amount of resistance was experienced, and there were several casualties.

Break-up of the Force.—Shortly after this the Pariari Saiads submitted, and paid up their fine of 1,500 rupees. The troops were therefore gradually withdrawn to British territory, and on the 11th of November the field force was broken up. The total casualties during the expedition were about 100.

Events Leading to the Fourth Black Mountain Expedition.—Successful as appeared, on the whole, to be the result of these operations, it was not long before we were again in conflict with the Black Mountain clans. Among the terms of the agreements executed by the Hassanzais and Akazais was one by which they bound themselves not to molest officials of Government or troops visiting the crest of the Black Mountain or the Agror border. In pursuance of this arrangement the Government of India, in March, 1890, ordered the construction of several roads leading from Agror up to the ridge, and it was also resolved to send a force to make a peaceable route march along its top in the autumn. This policy was strongly
A.D. 1890. resented by the tribes, and in October, 1890, when troops from Abbottabad assembled in Agror to carry out the projected route march, some Khankhel Hassanzais and Akazais, assembled by Sikandar Khan, the brother of Hashim Ali Khan, came down to Barchar and fired into the camp.

A.D. 1891. *The Fourth Black Mountain Expedition.*—The troops were withdrawn next day, and the clans were informed

that they would be duly punished when the spring arrived. Accordingly, in March, 1891, a force, consisting of about 6,300 men and eighteen guns, was concentrated at Darband in Feudal Tanawal, under the command of Major-General Elles, the object of the expedition being, in the Government of India's words, 'To carry out the purpose for which the movement of troops was made last October—namely, to assert our right to move along the crest of the Black Mountain without molestation, and more particularly to inflict punishment on the tribes concerned for the hostility practised on that occasion.'

In the operations that ensued the Hassanzais and Akazais offered practically no resistance. Hashim Ali Khan fled to the Chigharzais on the Buner border; first the Hassanzai country, and then that of the Akazais, were overrun by the troops; and the only serious opposition encountered was due to a large gathering of Bunerwals, Gaduns, Hindustani fanatics, and others, which, collecting in Chigharzai territory and on the ridge between the Hassanzai and Buner country, at one time threatened seriously to complicate the situation. Parties from this gathering came into collision with the troops at several places, notably at Ghazikot on the left bank of the Indus, where a band of Hindustani fanatics made a desperate attack on a Dogra picket of the 4th Sikhs on the night of the 18th of March, and were driven back with the loss of at least fifty men. But, being reassured as to the Government's intentions, they were eventually induced to disperse.

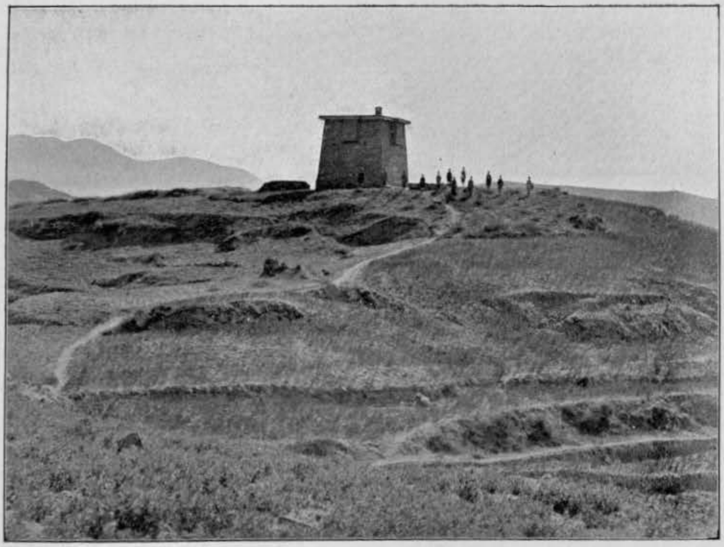
Settlement with the Tribes.—The way was now paved for a settlement with the Hassanzais and Akazais, and the *jirgas* of those tribes, being anxious to begin the sowing of the maize crop, came in at the end of May, and executed an agreement, of which the most important terms were the perpetual banishment of Hashim Ali Khan and his relatives, Sikandar Khan, Sheikh Ata Muhammad, and Turrabaz Khan, from their territory, the prohibition

of any future settlement of the Hindustani fanatics within their borders, the freedom of election of the Khan of Seri (outside the four proscribed Khankhels), and full responsibility for his conduct. The Mada Khel and Pariari *jirgas* also came in and executed similar agreements.

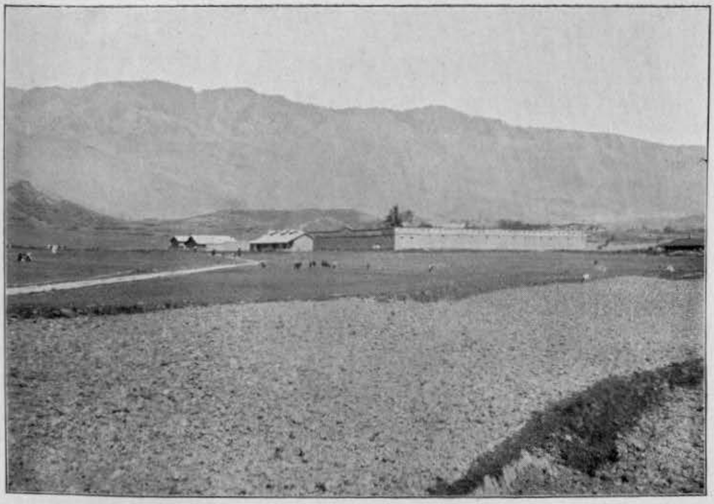
Election of Ibrahim Khan as Khan of Seri, and Inauguration of System of Tribal Allowances and Enrolment of Trans-border Men in the Border Police.—In pursuance of these arrangements, Ibrahim Khan, the rival and enemy of Hashim Ali Khan, with the help of the Nawab of Amb, whose daughter he had married, was elected Khan of Seri, and was then put in possession of Hashim Ali Khan's estate and given a present of money and rifles and an annual allowance of 2,000 rupees. But it was felt that further measures were needed to secure the future peace of this portion of the frontier. Accordingly the proposals of Mr. (now Sir Frederick) Cunningham, the Deputy Commissioner of Hazara, to give some small allowances to the *maliks* of the trans-border clans, and to enrol a number of the tribesmen in a force of Border Police, were accepted by the Government of India. On the inauguration of the new system* in November, 1891, the troops, which till then had remained across the frontier, were withdrawn, and the Fourth Black Mountain Expedition was thus brought to a successful conclusion. The total casualties on the British side during the operations were only fifty-three.

Isazai Expedition of 1892.—Yet one more expedition, however, was to take place before Black Mountain politics ceased to be a matter of continual and serious Imperial concern. In April, 1892, Hashim Ali Khan, in defiance of the agreements executed by the tribes, left the distant Chigharzai territory, where he had been residing, and

* The annual allowances sanctioned for the *maliks* of the various tribes were as follows: Hassanzais, 1,700 rupees; Akazais, 800 rupees; Mada Khels, 1,000 rupees; Pariariwals, 500 rupees; Residents of Daishi, Tikari, and Nandihar, 1,000 rupees; total, 5,000 rupees.



BORDER MILITARY POLICE POST AT JAL GALI.



FORT AT OGHI (BLACK MOUNTAIN RIDGE IN BACKGROUND).

paid a visit to some Mada Khel and Hassanzai villages near the right bank of the Indus. This flagrant violation of the recent settlement could not be tolerated ; a blockade was imposed on the Mada Khels in June, and Major-General Sir William Lockhart, commanding the Punjab Frontier Force, was deputed to inform the three Isazai clans—Hassanzai, Akazai, and Mada Khel—that, unless Hashim Ali Khan was surrendered within a month, they would be punished. The negotiations, however, proved a failure, for Hashim Ali Khan, though promised an allowance of 300 rupees a month for the maintenance of himself and his family during their detention in British territory, declined to come in, and accordingly, in September, 1892, a punitive force of about 6,000 men and twenty-four guns was concentrated under Major-General Lockhart at Darband. The troops crossed the Indus higher up, and, meeting no resistance, advanced to Baio, the village where Hassan Ali Khan had established himself. This and other villages in the neighbourhood they found deserted, and all that could be done was to destroy them and return. The object of the expedition having been achieved so far as was practicable, and the troops, moreover, being visited by an epidemic of cholera which carried off twenty-four men, no time was lost in breaking up the force, and by the 13th of October Darband was evacuated.

Black Mountain Politics from A.D. 1893 *to* 1905.—In the following years quietude, broken only by intertribal squabbles and fighting, with which the British Government did not concern itself, reigned on the border. Hashim Ali Khan made several tentative offers of submission, but the terms now offered—viz., residence in the Rawalpindi or Peshawar Districts and monthly allowances of 150 rupees for himself and 50 rupees each to his brother, Sikandar Khan, and his cousin, Turrabaz Khan, did not prove acceptable to him, and he remained in exile. Viewed at first with distrust, the enrolment of the tribes-

men in the Border Police proved eventually a success, and, though occasionally the tribal *jirgas*, in a sulky mood, refused to take their allowances and tried the patience and temper of the Deputy Commissioner, they refrained from any act of open hostility. Ibrahim Khan, however, was not a success as their chief, being unpopular with the clans and possessing little influence over them. In recognition of this fact his annual allowance was in 1900 reduced to 700 rupees.

A.D. 1906, 1907. *Burning of Seri and Murder of Ibrahim Khan.*—In the last year or two the situation has again become somewhat more interesting and complicated. In November, 1905, Ibrahim Khan inflamed the antagonism of the Isazai tribes by engineering the murder of his cousin, Isa Khan, with whom he had always been on the worst of terms. At the end of April, 1906, after prolonged and fruitless negotiations for the settlement of the case, the tribesmen took the law into their own hands, burnt Seri and other villages belonging to the Khan, and declared to the Deputy Commissioner that they had decided to disown him as their chief. Shortly afterwards, however, with the help of some of the Akazais, Ibrahim Khan recovered possession of Seri, and began to rebuild it. Annoyed at this, a band of Hassanzais raided Seri in September, destroyed the tower that Ibrahim Khan had erected, and cut down his maize. And on the 3rd of November another band, headed by Sikandar Khan and Turrabaz Khan themselves, surrounded a mosque where Ibrahim Khan was staying, close to the Karun Border Police post that overlooks Seri, set fire to the building, and shot down Ibrahim Khan as he tried to escape.

By the tribal code of ethics the latter may have deserved his death, but the offence of allowing two of the proscribed adherents of Hashim Ali Khan into Hassanzai cis-Indus territory could not be overlooked, and a portion of the tribe's allowance was withheld as a punishment. In regard to the Khanship now vacant by Ibrahim Khan's

death, the clans were in March, 1907, informed that Hashim Ali Khan and the other proscribed men could not be allowed to return from their exile in any circumstances, nor could Hashim Ali Khan be recognized as chief. But if they unanimously desired the election of one of Hashim Ali Khan's sons, and he happened to be a fit person for the appointment, the matter would be reported for the consideration of Government. After much squabbling, Sher Ali Khan, the eldest son of Hashim Ali Khan, was in May, 1907, elected to the Khanship by the tribe. His formal recognition by Government will depend on how he acquits himself in his precarious position. Meantime quietude reigns on this side of the border ; the Khan of Agror remains an exile, and the Agroris, most of them by no means anxious to have him back, till their fertile lands in peace and security.

CHAPTER VII

FEUDAL TANAWAL

Description of the Tract.—The tract known as Feudal or Upper Tanawal occupies the centre of the western half of the Hazara District. It is bounded on the south by the Badhnak tract of the Haripur tahsil; on the west by the Indus, and, farther north, by the Black Mountain; on the east by portions of the Abbottabad and Mansehra tahsils; and on the north by the Agror valley. Its area is 204 square miles, and its population at the census of 1901 amounted to 31,622 persons, giving a density of 155 per square mile. In 1881 the population was 24,044, and in 1891, 32,385. The apparent decline in the last decade is perhaps due to defective enumeration in 1891. The people are almost all agriculturists pure and simple, and there are but 600 Hindus in the whole tract. In fact, Darband on the Indus is the only place where there is any trade to speak of. Tanaolis form 60 per cent. and Gujars 12 per cent. of the entire population. The country resembles in character that adjoining it to the south and east, and is a network of steep hills and valleys studded by small villages. The Siran river crosses a corner at the middle of the eastern boundary, which it then skirts as far as the border of Badhnak, and the Unhar, issuing from the Agror valley, traverses its north-eastern portion. The dominating physical feature is the Bhingra hill, whose pine-clad slopes tower to a height of 8,500 feet between the two rivers. The cultivation is of

the usual hill type, with here and there an open space at the base of a mountain or along the edges of a stream. The chief crops are maize in the *kharif*, and wheat and barley in the *rabi* harvest. The irrigated lands grow rice and a little sugar-cane and turmeric. The forests of Bhingra contain *paludar*, *biar*, *chir*, and oak.

The Two States, Amb and Phulra.—The two States composing Feudal Tanawal are divided between two chiefs, the Khan of Amb and the Khan of Phulra. The former is far the most important, and, indeed, owns perhaps five-sixths of the total area. The south-eastern portion of the tract, from the crest of Bhingra to the Mansehra boundary, is the minor Khan's domain. Phulra has the poorer soil, and contains very little irrigation. In Amb, on the other hand, the Parhanna and Shergarh tracts, the one on the Siran and the other on the Unhar, are fertile and well watered, and along the Indus near Darband, and on the Badhnak border round Lassan, is some unirrigated land of fair quality. As regards forests also, the chief of Amb is the better off. Phulra has only the southern slopes of a portion of the Bhingra range; Amb has part of the southern and the whole of the northern slopes, and also some *chir*-clad hills on the border of the Mansehra tahsil. The populations of the two States in 1901 were 6,666 and 24,956 souls respectively.

History of the Family of the Chief of Amb—The Founder, Haibat Khan.—The chief of Amb is the head of the Hindwal section of the Tanaoli tribe. The rise of his family dates from the end of the eighteenth century, when one Haibat Khan established his superiority over the four other leading men among the Hindwals, and began to claim equality with Gul Sher Khan, the head of the Pallal section. The latter, resenting these pretensions, invaded the Kulai tract, where Haibat Khan resided, and devastated its villages. Haibat Khan fled, but after a time tendered his submission, and was allowed to return to Kulai. The peace was cemented by the betrothal of

a daughter of Gul Sher Khan to Haibat Khan's son, Hashim Ali, and of a daughter of Haibat Khan to Gul Sher Khan's son, Ahmad Ali Khan.

Hashim Ali, Son of Haibat Khan.—Haibat Khan died about A.D. 1803, and was succeeded in the chiefship of the Hindwals by Hashim Ali. Meanwhile Ahmad Ali Khan had taken his father's place as chief of the Pallahs. Jealous of Hashim Ali's growing power, he began to make things so unpleasant for the latter and his brother, Nawab Khan, that they took refuge on the slopes of Mahaban. From there they sent Ahmad Ali Khan a message demanding possession of the villages of Darband and Ghari, which were formerly strongholds of the Hindwals, but had been seized by Gul Sher Khan. On this Ahmad Ali Khan managed to entice Hashim Ali and his sister, Hashim Ali's wife, to visit him, promising that the two villages should be restored as her dowry. Having thus got Hashim Ali into his power, he massacred him and his following of 100 men, and sent his sister back to Nawab Khan with her husband's corpse. Nawab Khan thereupon married her, and, becoming chief of the Hindwals in his brother's stead, gradually increased his power.

Nawab Khan, Brother of Hashim Ali, and his Rival, Ahmad Ali Khan, Pallal.—Meanwhile retribution came upon Ahmad Ali Khan from another quarter. On the petition of his cousin, Akbar Ali Khan, who had been unjustly deprived of his heritage, Ata Muhammad Khan, Barakzai, the Governor of Kashmir, to which province Tanawal was nominally subordinate, dispatched a force to punish Ahmad Ali Khan, and the latter, unable to make resistance, fled across the river to Mahaban. The Duranis put Akbar Ali Khan in possession of Phuhar, Boi, and Derah, burnt Ahmad Ali Khan's residence, and then retired. After some more vicissitudes Ahmad Ali Khan recovered his position as head of the Pallals. He was subsequently assassinated by his uncle Sarbuland Khan, who succeeded him in the chiefship.

Nawab Khan's End.—An equally violent end awaited his rival, Nawab Khan. On one occasion he left his residence in Kulai to meet and escort the mother of the great Barakzai Sardars, Azam Khan and Ata Muhammad Khan, as she was on her way from Kashmir to Kabul. He entertained her with great honour, but, when the time came for her to resume her journey, he had the insolence to ask her to present him with her *izarband*, or pyjama string, which he had heard was of great value. Deeply offended though she was, she had no option but to comply and give up the ornament in question. On her return to Kabul she told her sons of the insult, and demanded revenge. It was some time before Sardar Azam Khan, the Governor of Kashmir, could carry out her desires. But in 1818, when he was returning to Kabul by way of the Pakhli plain and Tanawal, he induced a Saiad, Wahid Shah by name, of Naukot in Pakhli, to persuade Nawab Khan to visit his camp, and bring his son Painda Khan with him. They were well received at first, but, when the Governor crossed the Indus near Amb to march down the right bank, he left a detachment of his bodyguard behind him with orders to bring them on to Pehur, where his camp was pitched. Nawab Khan gave himself up for lost, but he managed to secure the escape of his son. Thereupon Azam Khan, determining that the father, at any rate, should not evade his vengeance, had him sewn up in a raw hide and thrown into the Kabul river.

Painda Khan, Son of Nawab Khan.—Painda Khan, Nawab Khan's successor, was the most famous of the Tanawal chiefs. The Hindwals were not at first disposed to accept him as their leader, but, meeting a band of 400 dismissed *jezailchis* who were on the way from Kashmir to Kabul in search of employment, he gained these over by promises of rich rewards; then, collecting the most influential men of the section, he killed two of them with the sword, drowned others in the Indus, and forced the

rest to abandon their proprietary status and become his tenants. He thus asserted an unequivocal right to the Khanate, and subsequently he strengthened his position by increasing his following to 200 horsemen and 500 footmen.

Painda Khan and the Sikhs.—His succession synchronized with the advent of the Sikhs into Hazara, and during the rest of his life he was constantly in conflict with them. In 1823 Sardar Hari Singh defeated Sarbuland Khan, the chief of the Pallal Tanaolis, and annexed his country. Sarbuland Khan escaped to Lassan, in Painda Khan's territory, and Hari Singh thereupon wrote to Painda Khan offering him the Pallal country as a reward for his capture. But Sarbuland Khan fled across the Indus, and, on Painda Khan's asking for his country on the plea that he had done his best to capture him, the request was refused. This led to ill-feeling, which was accentuated by Hari Singh's seizing part of Painda Khan's territory. When, however, Ranjit Singh, hearing of Hari Singh's defeat at Nara in the year 1824, hurried up with reinforcements, swept through the Sirikot hills, and then crossed the Indus and burnt Khabbal and Kaya, Painda Khan sent his son, Jahandad Khan, to make his submission to the Maharajah. But later, not relishing the Sikh forts which were now established in his country, he took to the hills, and from the Bhingra range and the country west of the Indus maintained a sort of guerilla warfare, harassing to the garrisons.

In 1828 a gathering of Tanaolis and Hindustani fanatics was defeated by Hari Singh at Phulra, and Painda Khan was reduced to sore straits. He tried to mend matters by submitting to the Hindustani leader, Khalifa Said Ahmad, but the result was only to lower his position, as his brother, Madat Khan, and Nawab Khan, the Pallal chief of Shingri, both of them his bitter rivals, were then the leading men in the Khalifa's camp. So he left his country for a time, seeking refuge in the distant Swathi

tracts cis-Indus. But at last, in the year 1829, he went to the Agror chief, and, while there, sent his son, Jahandad Khan, to Hari Singh at Mansehra, begging his help. This Hari Singh gave him, and, driving the Hindustanis out of the forts which they had established in his country, made it over to him again. In return Painda Khan gave Jahandad Khan as a hostage to the Sardar, who took him to Lahore.

But a fresh quarrel with the Sikhs soon broke out, for in 1830, having a grudge against Maha Singh, Hari Singh's deputy, Painda Khan seized the Sikh forts at Khairabad and Kirpilian. About the same time he recovered his trans-Indus territory, which the Hindustanis, who had been driven out of the country by a rising of the Yusafzai clans, had deserted in their flight. At the close of this year the Maharajah Ranjit Singh, being on his way to Peshawar, sent a message to Painda Khan inviting him to his camp with a view to settle his differences with the Sikhs. But Painda Khan seized the messenger, and sent word that he would keep him till his son, Jahandad Khan, was released. This bold stroke succeeded, and Jahandad Khan was sent back to Tanawal by Hari Singh's order.

Painda Khan and the Hindustanis.—A year or two later Painda Khan, with a band of Hindustanis who had returned to their old settlement at Sitana, evicted the Agror chief from his territory. The Hindustanis went on to Tikari, but made themselves so unpopular that the Swathis begged Painda Khan to rid the country of them. In compliance with their request he made a pretence of planning an attack on Yusafzai, sent for the Hindustanis to aid him, and, when they arrived at Amb, took all the boats back to the left bank of the Indus, and obliged them to return to Sitana.

Closing Years of Painda Khan's Rule.—In the year 1836 Sardar Hari Singh made a raid on Agror, evicted Painda Khan's soldiers, and built two more forts in his country.

In the following years desultory fighting between Painda Khan and the Sikhs continued, but this was brought to an abrupt close in 1841 by the great Indus flood of the 2nd of June, which has been referred to in Chapter V. In the winter of 1841-1842 Kour Partab Singh, who had received Kashmir and Hazara in *jagir* from his father, the Maharajah Sher Singh, came to Hazara from Kashmir, and marched into Painda Khan's country on the banks of the Indus. Painda Khan refused to come in at his summons, so Partab Singh, acting on the advice of the Sardars who accompanied him, made over the country to his brother, Madat Khan, and left nothing to Painda Khan but a few acres of land trans-Indus. This marked the close of the latter's chequered career, for in 1843 he died.

Jahandad Khan, Son of Painda Khan.—In 1846 Jahandad Khan, the son of Painda Khan, took advantage of the disorganization of affairs produced by the first Sikh war to seize the territory that had belonged to his father. He stormed the Sikh forts, but, foreseeing that the power of the Sikh State would shortly be reasserted from Lahore, he was wise enough to treat their garrisons with kindness. He had his reward, for when the close of the war saw the cession of Hazara to Raja Gulab Singh, Diwan Hari Chand, who was sent by the Raja to collect the revenue, confirmed him in possession of his old *jagir* in Feudal Tanawal, adding that of Kulai and Badhnak. When Hazara was transferred back to the Sikh Darbar, and Captain Abbott was deputed to make the first Settlement, Jahandad Khan at first hesitated to come in. But the capture of Salam Khand and the dispersal of the Tarkhelis convinced him of the necessity of submission, and he visited Abbott at Haripur in September, 1847. He was confirmed in his tenure of Feudal Tanawal and of the Kulai and Badhnak *jagirs* (though the latter were excluded entirely from his control), and he remained a good friend of the Sikh and British Governments till his

death in 1858. He proved his loyalty by resisting the overtures of Chattar Singh, and at a later date by delivering up as hostages all the Hassanzais found within his territory, when the murder of Messrs. Carne and Tapp, which led to the first Black Mountain expedition, brought his good faith temporarily under suspicion. During the Mutiny of 1857 he strengthened the garrisons and guards of his country, preserved an unbroken quiet therein, and furnished a contingent of levies to the British authorities. And in the expedition against the Hindustani fanatics of Sitana in May, 1858, he was present at the head of his clansmen, and rendered useful service. He was recommended for a *khillat* of 5,000 rupees and the title of Nawab for his conduct during the Mutiny, but died before they could be conferred. His character was an amiable one, but in vigour and enterprise he was greatly the inferior of his father, and he was much in the hands of his ministers, of whom Bostan Khan, an unprincipled character, who was believed to have connived in the murder above referred to, and was subsequently deported to Lahore as a political prisoner, was the most notable and influential.

Muhammad Akram Khan, Son of Jahandad Khan.—Jahandad Khan expired suddenly on the 6th of November, 1858, while crossing the Indus in a boat. He left an only son, Muhammad Akram Khan, a boy of nine years old. There was some fear lest Madat Khan, the younger brother of Painda Khan, to whom the latter had given the Phulra territory as a fief, might take the opportunity of asserting his claim to the Khanate ; but this was averted by the tact and promptitude of the Deputy Commissioner, Major Becher, and Madat Khan was himself the first of the tribe to bind the turban round the boy's head in token of his succession to his father's title and in acknowledgment of his own allegiance. The management of the State was put in the hands of Painda Khan's widow, the young Khan's grandmother, a woman of sense and spirit,

and the most trusted adherents of the family were appointed her advisers. It was not long, however, before the young chief asserted his own authority, and established the firm control over his tribe which he retained to the end of his life. In 1868 he distinguished himself by the assistance which he rendered to the British Government both before and during the second Black Mountain expedition, and displayed great personal gallantry, as has been recorded in the foregoing chapter. In recognition of his services and of those of his father, the title of Nawab Bahadur was conferred on him in that year; from January, 1870, he was granted a monthly allowance of 500 rupees, and in 1871 he was made a Companion of the Star of India. In the Black Mountain expedition of 1888 he rendered further services, and was rewarded by the honour of Knighthood in the same Order. He died in January, 1907.

Character of Muhammad Akram Khan.—Muhammad Akram Khan resembled his famous grandfather in personal bravery, energy, and strength of character. He ruled his tribe with an iron hand, and woe to those who dared to thwart him. In the last fifteen years or so of his life he was crippled by disease; but his intellect was as alert as ever, and the vigour of his will unimpaired. An adept in the intrigue that passes for statesmanship among the border clans, he kept his numerous enemies at bay, and strengthened his position by amassing considerable wealth and extending the boundaries of his trans-Indus possessions. His influence with the Mada Khels, and with the section of the Hassanzais that favoured Ibrahim Khan, to whose daughter he was married, was often invoked by the District authorities in their attempts to solve the tangles of Black Mountain politics, and, though opinions vary as to his honesty of purpose and the value of the assistance given during his later years, he at least deserves great credit for services which he rendered in the earlier period, when he was in his prime,

and for the excellent order in which he kept his own tribe throughout his tenure of the chiefship.

Muhammad Akram Khan and his Son—Khanizaman Khan succeeds to his Chiefship.—The Nawab left a numerous progeny, both legitimate and illegitimate, including about fifteen sons. The son whom he acknowledged as the eldest of his legitimate children was Khanizaman Khan, but in his latter years he became estranged from him, and concentrated his affections on Khanizaman Khan's half-brother, Abdul Latif Khan, who was the second of nine sons by a favourite wife. In fact, from the years 1904 to 1906 the Nawab would have nothing to say to Khanizaman Khan at all, and did his best to secure the succession for the younger son. The British Government, however, definitely recognized the former as the heir to the chiefship, and on the Nawab's death his claims were at once acknowledged by his brothers, by the tribe, and by the clans across the border. Some difficulty arose as to the provision to be made for the brothers, since the partition of his estate, which in more than one will the Nawab had designed to take place after his death, was too derogatory to the position of the eldest son to be accepted by the British Government. But eventually a settlement was effected whereby the Parhanna tract, situated between the Mansehra tahsil and Shergarh, and with an estimated annual income of upwards of 14,000 rupees, was assigned to Abdul Latif Khan and his full brothers for their maintenance, and certain villages in the Dhani tract were given to Muhammad Umar Khan, an eleventh legitimate son of the Nawab by a third wife. The right to realize fines and forfeitures and to levy grazing dues was reserved to the chief, and his brothers were to have no power to alienate the villages assigned to them unless they had first offered them on reasonable terms to the chief himself. Further, in the event of trouble arising to trans-Indus Tanawal, or of the British Government calling on the chief for

service, the *guzarakhors*, as they are called, were to render the latter all the assistance necessary on pain of forfeiting their *guzaras* if they failed in this duty. Here for the present the matter rests; the appointment of Khanizaman Khan is popular with the tribe, whom he has conciliated by remitting some of the heavy dues that his father levied from them; but whether Abdul Latif Khan, between whom and Khanizaman Khan no love is lost, will quietly accept the subordinate position allotted to him remains to be seen.

History of Phulra—Madat Khan the First Chief.—The history of the State of Phulra calls for little separate remark. As above noted, it was assigned by Painda Khan to his younger brother, Madat Khan. Jahandad Khan, on his succession, confirmed the grant. In 1856 he wished to resume it, but Major Becher effected an amicable settlement, by which the grantee recognized the chief of Amb as head of the house and bound himself to render service. In 1858 Major Becher contemplated proposing that Government should acknowledge the separate estate of Phulra, and thereby secure the Khan against resumption at the pleasure of the Amb chief. This intention was not carried out, but Madat Khan's correct behaviour on Jahandad Khan's death practically assured to him a permanent tenure, and lapse of time confirmed him and his successors in this position. In 1857 Madat Khan supplied a body of horsemen for service and personally opposed the fugitive mutineers of the 55th Regiment, when they attempted to cross from Swat into Kashmir. He also did useful service in 1858, and as a reward was presented with a valuable *khillat*.

Madat Khan's Successor.—He died in 1878, and was succeeded by his son, Abdullah Khan. The latter was succeeded by his son, Abdurrahman Khan, in 1888, and Abdurrahman Khan by his son, Ata Muhammad Khan, in 1897. The last named, a young man of about twenty-eight years of age, is the present chief. His uncles,

Muhammad Umar Khan, Muhammad Akbar Khan, Dost Muhammad Khan, and Gulam Haidar Khan, the sons of Abdullah Khan, and other male relatives, hold *guzaras* in the shape of villages within the estate. Fortunately their relations with the chief are amicable, and the State gives little trouble to the District authorities.

The Status of Feudal Tanawal.—The status of Feudal Tanawal with reference to the British Government is one of considerable interest. And the Khan of Amb occupies an especially unique position, for he is at once an independent ruler, a feudal chief, and a British subject. He is the first as regards his trans-Indus territory; the second as regards Feudal Tanawal; and the third on account of his tenure of a large *jagir* and of certain land in the Haripur tahsil. In 1851 the Government of India declared the position of Jahandad Khan, the then chief, to be, and probably one which must always be, anomalous, and Lord Dalhousie was content 'to regard him as a nominal tributary and subject of the British Government, not interfering in the internal affairs of the *jagir*' (*jagir* here meaning Feudal or Upper Tanawal), 'expecting him to defend himself in all ordinary attacks, while the Government would defend him against formidable invasions; and thus constituting his possessions a sort of outwork between our own more valuable territory and the wild tribes beyond him.' But the power of life and death within Upper Tanawal was not allowed him. In January, 1859, Sir John Lawrence, Chief Commissioner of the Punjab, rejected a proposal to make a summary settlement of the country, and expressed his view of the Khan's status in the following words: 'The Chief Commissioner considers that Upper Tanawal *is* an integral portion of the Hazara District, and of British territory; but with reference to its past history, and more especially its peculiar position and character, the tract has been, and should continue to be, dealt with as a *quasi*-independent chiefship. . . . Upper Tanawal is a chiefship held

under the British Government, but in which, as a rule, we possess no internal jurisdiction. The chief manages his own people in his own way without regard to our laws, rules, or system. This tenure resembles that on which the chiefs of Patiala, Jhind, Nabha, Kapurthala, and others hold their lands. In extreme cases the British Government no doubt have the power of interfering, and would interfere where such interference might appear necessary for the public good. . . . But ordinarily, and as a rule, the Chief Commissioner desires to avoid any interference.'

The result of these orders was that the Civil Courts exercised no jurisdiction whatever in Upper Tanawal, and that the Criminal Courts did so only in murder cases. It is true that in 1887 the Punjab Chief Court held that the Hazara Criminal Courts could legally exercise jurisdiction throughout the tract, but this judgment had no effect in practice. In 1897, however, the question of jurisdiction was brought to the front through the filing of a civil suit against the Khan of Phulra by a native of that State for the possession of land within its limits, and it was felt necessary to put the status of the chiefs on a clear legal basis.

Regulation II. of 1900.—Accordingly, in 1900, a Regulation was passed by the Government of India 'to provide for the better administration of Upper Tanawal.' This defines in a schedule the boundaries of Phulra and the feudal territory of the Amb chief respectively, and it enacts that, except as regards offences punishable under Sections 121 to 130 of the Indian Penal Code (rebellion and sedition), or under Sections 301 to 304 (murder and culpable homicide), or any other offence specified by a written order of the Local Government, the administration of criminal justice should, in Phulra, vest in the Khan of Phulra, and, in the rest of Upper Tanawal, vest in the Chief of Amb. The administration of civil justice, and the collection of the revenue within these tracts are

similarly vested in their chiefs, and the jurisdiction of ordinary tribunals is excluded. The rule of decision in civil cases is laid down as custom, where any that is reasonable and equitable can be established, and, failing that, it is to be justice, equity, and good conscience. In criminal cases a fair and impartial trial is to be accorded to every accused person, and the chiefs are not allowed to pass any sentence of death or of imprisonment for over twenty years, or of transportation, nor to inflict a punishment which is not recognized by the law of British India, or is unduly severe. And the Local Government is given authority to revise at will any order made by either chief in exercise of the powers conferred on him by the Regulation. It is also worth noting that the preamble of the Regulation makes it clear that Feudal Tanawal is 'in the District of Hazara.'

Relations between the Two States.—The relations of the two chiefs to each other are not specifically defined in the Regulation, though in the schedule defining the boundaries the estates of the Khan of Phulra are stated to be held by that chief from and under the Chief of Amb. But while, historically, Phulra is a dependency of the Amb State, yet, as Painda Khan delegated all his powers over its residents and lands to Madat Khan, the first grantee, its subordination has from the first been purely nominal, and for all practical purposes it may be regarded as independent of its bigger neighbour.

Internal Administration of the States.—The administration of the States is naturally of a somewhat primitive character. All cases, whether criminal or civil, which the parties cannot settle for themselves, are referred to the chiefs ; civil matters are usually decided by the help of arbitrators, and for criminal offences, if a fine is not considered sufficient, a period of detention in the lock-up at Amb or Phulra, as the case may be, is imposed. To enforce their orders the chiefs have a number of retainers, armed with a miscellaneous assortment of guns

and rifles, mostly of an antiquated description. Forest conservancy is of a fairly strict character, and no one is allowed to fell timber without a permit from the Khan. But such permits are usually given free to cultivators requiring the wood for agricultural or domestic purposes. Grazing inside the forests is either not allowed at all, or is subject to the payment of a fee in the shape of *ghi*. The collection of dry wood for fuel is unrestricted. None of the cultivators seem to have any fixity of tenure; they can be evicted at will by their landlord, whether he be the chief himself or a *guzarakhor*, and land is in consequence constantly changing hands, with a deleterious effect on the character of the cultivation. The revenue is levied either in cash or grain. If the former, it is usually farmed out to the headman of the village as an *ijara;* if the latter, it is collected by the Khan's agents, being generally one-half the produce on irrigated lands and one-third on unirrigated. The amount of the *ijara* varies from year to year according to the quality of the harvest, nor need a village that pays once in cash or grain, as the case may be, always continue to do so. Often the villagers object that the *ijara* fixed is too heavy, and they are allowed to pay in grain instead; in other cases offers on their part to substitute money for grain payment are accepted. Profits are also made from watermills on the Siran and Unhar, by the sale of timber from the Bhingra forests, by the levy of grazing fees (usually at the rate of 10 rupees per hundred head) on migratory flocks from Kagan and elsewhere, by dues in the shape of *ghi*, and miscellaneous village cesses, and, in the case of the chief of Amb, by a tax on the timber that is floated in rafts down the Indus.

Income of the Chiefs.—The income of the late Nawab of Amb from these various sources would appear to have been over 1½ lakhs a year. At his decease upwards of 3 lakhs' worth of gold and rupees was definitely ascertained to have been left by him, and there was probably

more that was not forthcoming. And in addition there was much in the way of jewellery, cattle, and other movable property. In 1851 Major Abbott estimated the income of Jahandad Khan at 23,000 rupees only, and though this was probably much below the mark there is no doubt that the excellent management of the late Nawab immensely increased his resources.

The Khan of Phulra's income is very small by comparison. Much of the estate is in the hands of *guzarakhors*, and it may be doubted whether the Khan's own share of the profits comes to more than 4,000 or 5,000 rupees a year.

CHAPTER VIII

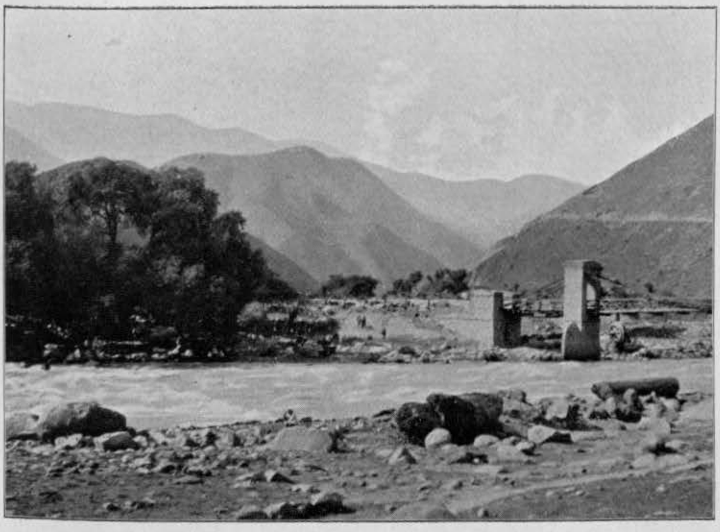
THE KAGAN VALLEY

The Kagan Valley—Situation, Dimensions, and Area.—The Kagan valley figures so largely in all accounts of Hazara, is scenically and botanically so attractive, and is becoming so increasingly popular as a summer resort, that a somewhat detailed description of it will not perhaps be out of place in this work. It is the northernmost portion of British India, being a wedge, as it were, driven up between Kashmir on the east and the territory of independent hill tribes on the west. Its length from south-west to north-east, as the crow flies, is 60 miles, or by road from the Babusar pass to Balakot just under 92 miles, and its average width is about 15 miles. If we consider it to begin at Balakot village, its total area is about 860 square miles, or something short of one-third of the area of the District exclusive of Feudal Tanawal. There are 76 square miles of Government forest, and 18,000 acres, or 28 square miles, of cultivation. The rest is village waste, part forest, part grass preserve or grazing ground, part lofty mountains under everlasting snow.

Villages in the Valley.—The valley is made up of twenty Government forests and twenty-three village estates, lying on either side of the Kunhar or Kagan river. From north to south the villages are situated as follows: On the right bank, Bhutandes, Kamalban, Jared (with most of its land on the left bank), Chushal, Bela Sacha, Hingrai,



THE KAGAN VALLEY: THE LANDS OF JARED VILLAGE.



THE ENTRANCE TO THE KAGAN VALLEY: BALAKOT SUSPENSION BRIDGE.

Banbigar, Ghanela, Jiggan, Bibhara Patlang, Khet Serash, Satbanni, Balakot; on the left bank, Kagan, Phagal, Manur, Bhunja, Paras, Kawai, Ghanul, Sanghar, Ghora, Bhangian Josach. Of the above, Chushal, Paras, Bela Sacha, and Kawai were formed at the Second Regular Settlement out of the old estate of Bela Kawai, and Banbigar, Ghanela, Bibhara Patlang, Jiggan, Khet Serash, Satbanni, Bhangian Josach, and Balakot itself are the northern of the eleven villages into which the old estate of Balakot was then also split up. But it must not be understood that any of these twenty-three so-called villages consist of one site only. On the contrary, Balakot is the only one which, along with many scattered habitations, has also a single site of any considerable size; the rest may or may not have one or more cluster of huts, which look like a small village in the ordinary acceptance of the term (Kagan itself has a great number of such tiny hamlets), but most of the people live in isolated homesteads built on the lands they cultivate. Of the areas comprised within the village limits the Kagan estate, which includes the whole of the top of the valley, is far the largest, being nearly 540 square miles in area; next comes Manur, with 67 square miles. The smallest village is Ghora, with 200 acres. Jared, Balakot, Ghanul, and Sanghar have most cultivation—viz., about 1,700 acres each, but a good portion of the Balakot lands is really outside the valley. Kagan itself has 1,500 acres. The highest cultivation is near Burawai, a stage on the road to Chilas, 69 miles from Balakot, and at an altitude of about 10,000 feet.

Crops.—In the upper part of the valley only *kharif* crops are grown; even in the lower the *rabi* is of little importance. There are some fine rice-fields at Balakot and Kawai, but above Jared no rice is produced. Maize is the staple crop and flourishes everywhere. The American maize on some of the lands of Jared and Phagal is exceptionally fine. Above Kagan the climate

gets too cold for the ordinary variety, and a short, stunted kind known as *pili shuri* is prevalent. Buckwheat (*drawa*) and *china* are also grown to some extent in the higher parts of the valley. In the *rabi* wheat is the most prevalent crop ; at the higher altitudes a coarse kind of barley known as *paighambari jau* is met with, but it is really a *kharif* crop, for it is sown in June and reaped in August.

Forests and Streams.—The forests have been described in Chapter III. The main river is the Kunhar, of which the valley forms the catchment area. Issuing from the lake called Lulu Sar, and gradually gathering volume from tributary streams, it soon becomes a splendid torrent, here foaming in cataracts, there rippling gently round tree-covered islands or gliding along with a smooth and silent flow, oblivious of the turmoil that is past and unheeding that to come. In the summer it is unfordable much below Batakundi. In the winter it is shallower. The bridges that span it at long intervals, save where the Government road crosses it at Balakot, Burawai, and just below Lulu Sar, are unsteady structures, just two logs stretched across the stream with cross-pieces nailed thereto, and the narrower and shakier of them are somewhat trying to the nerves. The Kunhar's most important tributaries are, on the left bank, from south to north, the *kathas* of Sanghar, Ghanul, Bhunja, Manur, Naran, Batakundi, Dabuka, Jora (by Burawai), Jalkhad, and Purbiala ; on the right bank, those of Barna, Jalora, Bhauran, Bhutandes, Bhimbal, Dhumduma, and Sipat. Apart from these there are streams and streamlets innumerable, issuing from the snows and tumbling in graceful cascades from the wooded heights or flowing more gently through flowery meadows.

Lakes.—The lakes are a feature of the upper end of the valley. Encircled by rocky, snow-crowned hills, they lie in impressive silence and solitude, their waters reflecting in wonderful colours the changing tints of the sky. The



FLOWERS IN KAGAN.



THE KAGAN ROAD, A LITTLE ABOVE KAGAN VILLAGE.

three chief are named Lulu Sar, Dudibach Sar, and Safr Maluk Sar (*sar* meaning lake). The rest are petty tarns. Lulu Sar is the largest. In form an irregular crescent about 1½ miles in length with an average breadth of 300 yards, it lies near the head of the glen on the Chilas road, 10 miles west of the Babusar pass. It is fed by the Gitidas and Aphuta Pani streams, and is the source of the Kunhar. Its altitude is 11,167 feet, and its depth averages 150 feet. Story tells how the blind daughter of the Emperor Akbar bathed in its waters and recovered her sight. Dudibach Sar is at the head of the Purbiala *katha*, some 12 miles east of Besal. It is a circular lake about half a mile in diameter, and was, in the year 1857, the scene of the surrender of the mutineers of the 55th Infantry, which is described in Chapter V. Its altitude must be quite 12,000 feet.

Story of Safr Maluk Lake.—Safr Maluk Sar is some 6 miles to the east of Naran, and is the source of the Naran *katha*. It is about half a mile long by 500 yards broad, and 10,718 feet above sea-level. It is an enchanted lake, and of it the following story is told: There was once upon a time a Prince of Delhi who saw in a dream a fairy of wondrous beauty, and straightway fell in love with the vision. On awaking he sought out the astrologers and asked them where he could find her. They told him to proceed to a certain glen in the Kagan valley above Naran, where he was to spend twelve years in religious devotion. At the end of that time it might be that he would have his wish. Accordingly the Prince, hereafter to be called Safr Maluk,* the 'much-travelled one,' (from *safr*, travel, and *mulk*, country), betook himself to the glen aforesaid. He found there a vast lake lying at the head of the valley in the tract now called Kach, and a great river flowing down to Naran therefrom. For twelve

* So the narrator. But *maluk* is the plural of *malik* (chief), not of *mulk*, and some pronounce the name 'Saif ul Maluk,' or 'the sword of the chiefs.'

years he gave himself up to the study of religion in this lonely spot, and then at last his wish was gratified. For one day he beheld Badal Jamal, the Queen of the Fairies, with her troop of 360 attendants, come down to bathe in the river. Unconscious of the Prince's presence, they laid their clothes on the bank and descended into the water. Seizing the opportunity, the Prince snatched the clothes of the Queen away. Whereat the other fairies, scared at his unexpected appearance, hastily picked up their garments and vanished. But the Queen remained helpless in the water, nor would the Prince give back her clothes till she had promised to be his wife. And so his desire was accomplished. But Badal Jamal had another lover, a powerful demon dwelling in the mountains near, and, when he saw the Prince about to carry her off, his wrath was great. Hastening to the embankment which dammed the waters of the lake, he burst it open, and let a mighty flood sweep down the valley. But his efforts to destroy the pair were vain. For they escaped to the hill at the lower end of the glen and stayed there till flood was past. Then Prince Safr Maluk took his bride back to Delhi, and they lived happily ever after. The inhabitants of Naran, then a big city, were not so fortunate, for the flood swept over them and destroyed the place, and its site to-day is marked only by a few huts and by the boulders that the stream washed down. And a further outcome of the flood was that the lake was shifted to the centre of the valley, where it now lies, and was confined within narrower limits. Of the fairies some say that they have deserted the place, others aver that still of nights they come to dance their revels on the grass and bathe themselves in the stream, and then woe is it to the mortal who encounters them !

Mountains.—The mountains of Kagan flank the Kunhar on either side. On both ranges there is a series of lofty peaks, but the eastern are the highest. Mali ka



THE MANUR PEAK.



THE SAFR MALUK RIDGE, TO THE NORTH OF THE LAKE.

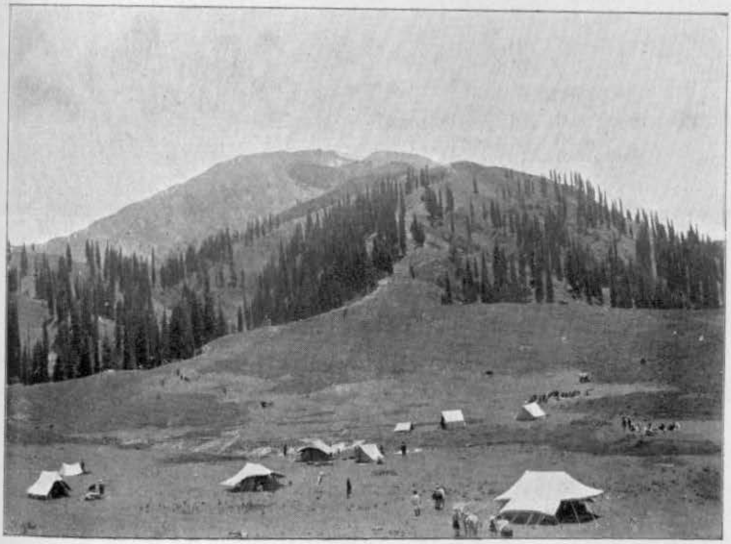
Parbat* (17,360 feet), the loftiest of all, stands to the east of the Safr Maluk lake; south of it is Ragan Pajji (16,528 feet), at the head of the Shikara *katha;* and south again the serrated ridges of Shikara and Bichla, also over 16,000 feet. At the head of the Bichla *katha* are two peaks called Raja Bogi, 15,487 and 15,920 feet respectively. Further south yet is the conspicuous rounded summit of Makra (12,752 feet), at the head of the Ghanul *katha*. On the other side of the Kunhar, opposite to Makra is Musa ka Musalla, or 'the praying-carpet of Moses' (13,378 feet). Between Kagan and Naran are Chumbra (15,371 feet), a peak not over-difficult to climb, and Manur Gali (15,129 feet), facing Mali ka Parbat across the Kach glen. In the more northern part of the valley are Dabuka's magnificent and jagged wall of snow (16,196 feet), and the fine sharp pointed peak of Waitar (15,243 feet). Altogether it is a galaxy of splendid hills, but to view them aright one must climb to heights above the valley, and not be content with the easy road below.

Botany.—Kagan is a paradise for the botanist, who for details of many of the trees, shrubs, and flowers to be found there should consult the Appendix to this work. To the uninitiated also its flowers are one of its great attractions. Violets—blue, purple, or yellow—great white peonies, dark blue and light blue forget-me-nots, pink mallows, primulas, balsams, gentians, wild geraniums, anemones, yellow poppies, columbines, larkspurs, irises, edelweiss, and many another species, at different altitudes and at different seasons meet and charm the eye. The higher one moves up the valley the more abundant and diverse is the display, till round Besal or between Lulu Sar and Gitidas the turf, where cattle have not grazed, is carpeted with flowers.

* Such is the name in the Revenue Survey map; but the residents in the valley do not appear to know this fine hill by this or any other name. They are more apt to give names to grazing tracts or to passes than to peaks, which do not interest or affect them so much.

Sport.—To the sportsman, on the other hand, Kagan has not many attractions to offer. Black bear are fairly numerous, and a few red bear are said to inhabit the northern hills. Ibex are also to be found occasionally in the remoter nullahs, but the ubiquitous Gujars and their flocks prevent them visiting the valley in any numbers. Chikor are pretty common, but pheasants are few and far between. The marmots on the shores of Lulu Sar, and in the hills round Gitidas, will, it is hoped, be left unmolested. A quaint and interesting sight are these little animals, as they sit up like big rats on the rocks by their holes and utter their shrill cries of alarm. And it will be a pity if rifles and shot-guns frighten them away from their present haunts. Even now they are very shy, and those who wish to get a nearer view should visit side valleys, like that of the Purbiala *katha*, where they are to be found in greater numbers. Of the fish little can be said. There are no doubt *mahsir* and snow trout in the main river and its side streams, but they have not yet been caught with the rod. Sahoch, below Batakundi, is said to be one of the best places for them. In the lakes it is believed that none are to be found.

Climate and Rainfall.—The climate of Kagan is intensely cold in winter, but in summer leaves little to be desired when once a height of 5,000 feet has been gained. The propinquity of the snow and the quantity of water everywhere make the air cooler than at equal altitudes nearer to the plains, and a breeze up or down the river generally tempers the heat of the sun. At the highest stages on the road the nights are always chilly, and a cloudy day even in July or August, the warmest months, may make a fire welcome. Snow falls very heavily in winter, but the summer rains decrease in quantity as one moves up the valley, and from a height of 9,000 feet onwards it is seldom that there is anything of a downpour. For the treeless wastes at the head of the glen attract no moisture, and the serried ranks of the hills beat back



5TH GURKHA CAMP AT PAYA, ABOVE KAWAI.



VIEW UP RIVER FROM MAHANDRI.

the monsoon. It is, therefore, a peculiarly suitable tract to visit during the rainy season for any one who wishes to escape from the damp heat of the plains or the cheerless mists of more frequented hills.

Population, Tribes, and Leading Men.—The population of the valley at the time of the census of March, 1901, was some 37,000 souls; but in the summer the numbers are greatly swelled by the graziers, who bring to the rich grazing grounds of the valley the flocks and herds which have been wintering in a warmer climate. The people are almost wholly Swathis, Saiads, or Gujars. One village, Sanghar, belongs to Mada Khel Pathans. The Swathis own all the other villages except Kagan, Kamalban, Bhutandes, Phagal, Chushal, Bela Sacha, and Kawai, of which Saiads are the proprietors. The Gujars are tenants only, a great number possessing occupancy rights. The Saiads of Kagan village are descendants of Ghazi Baba (Nur Shah), in his turn a descendant of the Jalal Baba who headed the Swathi invasion. They own Kamalban and Phagal as well. The Saiads of Bela Kawai, to whom Bhutandes also belongs, are the descendants of Arab Shah, a brother of Ghazi Baba. Their leading representative, Gulam Haidar Shah, a son of the Zamin Shah whose recalcitrant behaviour led to the expedition of 1852, is (1907) the patriarch of the glen. He resides at Kawai, and has grandsons who are themselves grey-haired. Besides him the principal Saiads are Manawar Shah and Ghazi Shah of Kagan (who are mentioned in Chapter II.); Fakir Shah and Mardan Shah, the other two *lambardars* of Kagan; Kamr Ali Shah, uncle to Manawar Shah; Hayat Shat, *lambardar* of Paras; and Pir Ali Shah, *lambardar* of Bela Sacha. As stated in Chapter II., they are, generally speaking, an idle, unenterprising race, unable to stand the heat of the plains and sticking closely to their homes, expecting most things to be done for them by their Gujar tenants, and, as their numbers rapidly increase, finding it a little more

difficult to live at ease than before. But their traditions and their history entitle them to consideration. Of the Swathis the most prominent men are Dost Muhammad Khan, Jahandad Khan, Juma Khan, and Nawab Khan, *lambardars* of Balakot; Pir Khan, *lambardar* of Bhunja; Habibullah Khan, *lambardar* of Jared; and Bostan Khan, *lambardar* of Manur. There are some fine big men among them, and they have more capacity and energy than the Saiads. But they are very quarrelsome, and treat their tenants with little more consideration than the others. The Gujars are what hill Gujars usually are—strong and hardy physically, well behaved and inoffensive, except where forests are concerned, but slow and stupid as their own buffaloes.

Trade.—In the summer season, when the road to Chilas is open, a considerable trade passes up and down Kagan. Stores for the Chilas and Gilgit garrisons, salt and cloth for the Chilasis and Kohistanis, salt and grain for the Gujars at the northern end of the valley, are carried up the road on mules, ponies, and bullocks, and down the road come hides and *ghi* from Kohistan, Chilas, and the valley itself. *Khut* (*Aucklandia Costus*), to supply incense for Chinese joss-houses, is also exported in considerable quantities, and numbers of bullocks, sheep, and goats are sold for disposal in the markets of Rawalpindi, Peshawar, or Murree. And down the river floats timber from the reserved forests on its long journey to the Jhelum depot.

Prices.—The local products of the valley are fairly cheap. Sheep and goats vary according to size and quality, the former costing from 2 rupees to 5 rupees each, and the latter from 3 rupees to 9 rupees. White fleeces sell at the rate of 2 sers per rupee, and those of other colours from 1 to 1½ sers per rupee. They are made up into blankets or *pattu* cloth, and are sold in Gilgit, Chilas and Balakot. White blankets are 2 rupees to 3 rupees, according to size. Coloured blankets usually vary from



CHILASI VISITORS TO THE KAGAN VALLEY.



SWATHI MALIKS OF THE KAGAN VALLEY.

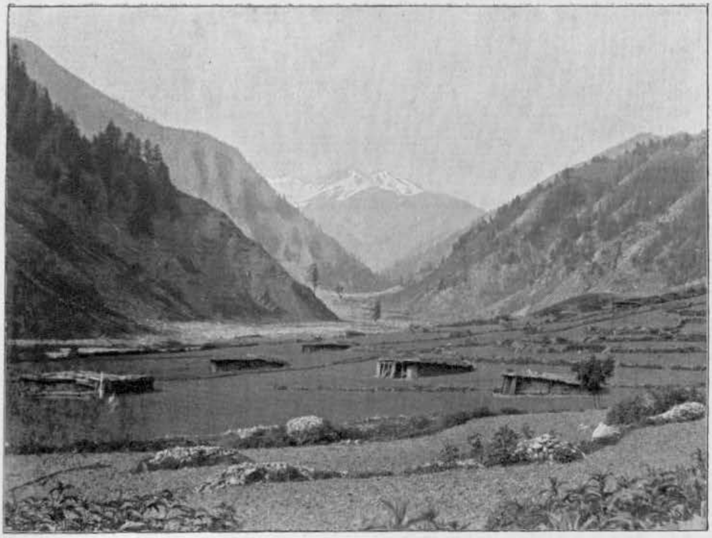
3 rupees to Rs. 4.8, but specially large ones may cost anything up to 25 rupees. *Pattu* cloth with a width of 2 feet costs 1 rupee per 40 inches. Butter (*maska*) is bought up by the Hindu traders from the Gujars at rates of 2½ sers, 3 sers, or more per rupee, and taken to Balakot, where it is made into *ghi* and exported. Milk, wood, and grass are naturally very cheap, except wood above Burawai, where tree vegetation almost ceases. But grain, flour, chicken, and eggs are scarce and consequently dear, and the higher you go the scarcer and dearer they are. The prices of such commodities at the various stages are fixed by the order of the Deputy Commissioner. For coolies the usual rate is 4 annas an ordinary stage.

Revenue and Assignments.—The total assessment (land and water mills) is over 21,000 rupees. Of this the upper and larger portion of the valley, which forms the Kagan assessment circle, pays 13,000 rupees. The rest is in the Kunhar assessment circle. The whole of the Government revenue is realized after the autumn harvest. One-third of the assessment of Kagan village and two-thirds of that of the four estates of Bela Kawai are assigned to their respective proprietors. The *zamindari inamdars* of the valley are Dost Muhammad Khan (Rs. 50), Jahandad Khan (Rs. 50), Nawab Khan (Rs. 25), Juma Khan (Rs. 25)—all of Balakot; Nadir of Ghanul (Rs. 50), Mir Ahmad of Sanghar (Rs. 50), Pir Khan of Bhunja (Rs. 75), Habibullah Khan of Jared (Rs. 75), Bostan Khan of Manur (Rs. 75), Gulam Haidar Shah of Kawai (Rs. 100), and Ghazi Shah of Kagan (Rs. 100).

History.—References to the history of Kagan will be found in Chapter V., and little need be said on the subject here. Before and during Sikh times the Saiads dominated the glen, and were practically independent of the Kashmir Government, to which they were nominally attached. For their country was remote and difficult of approach, and nobody troubled himself much about them. In A.D. 1844 they and their Swathi allies came into pro-

minence by ambuscading and destroying a small Sikh force under Diwan Ibrahim, which had been sent by Raja Gulab Singh to attack the Chilasis. They appear to have behaved very treacherously on this occasion, though they seek to excuse their action by alleging acts of violence and oppression against the Diwan. They were never, however, properly punished for their offence, and their leaders eventually succeeded in making their peace with the Raja. They submitted to Major Abbott when they realized that his was the winning side; but at a later date, as has been already described, they became recalcitrant, and were coerced by the bloodless expedition of 1852. Exiled to Pakhli for a space, the Saiads were restored to their estates by Major Edwardes in 1855. The latter, when announcing this measure at Balakot to the assembled Kagan tribes, took the opportunity to assure the Gujars that in future the Saiads would not be allowed to oppress them and exact forced labour from them. This prohibition has never been fully carried into effect; still, the Gujars are no longer quite the mere hewers of wood and drawers of water for their overlords that they were. Since 1855 Kagan has been perfectly peaceful. In 1857 the only excitement was the episode of the flight and surrender of the 55th Native Infantry, which has been elsewhere narrated. The opening of the Government road to Chilas in 1898 attracted trade and prosperity to the valley, and brought its tribes a little more into touch with the outer world, and it is not easy to believe now that the conquest of Kagan was once considered to be a matter of no small difficulty, and its inhabitants a somewhat formidable foe.

Itinerary of Kagan Valley Route—Preliminary Remarks, Bungalows, etc.—To intending visitors the following itinerary of the valley may be of advantage. It should be premised that at each stage, from Jaba to Gitidas, there is a Military Works bungalow, permission to use which should be sought from the Assistant Commanding Royal



NARAN.



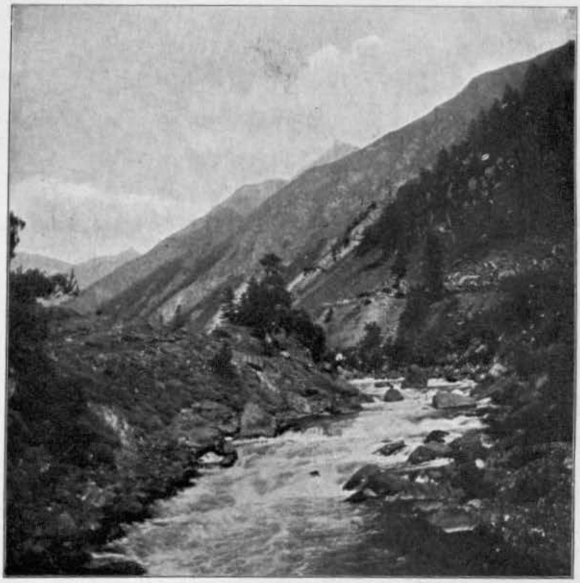
BATAKUNDI BUNGALOW.

Engineer at Abbottabad. For a description of these bungalows reference may be made to Table XXIX. at the end of this book. As far as and including Batakundi they contain two main rooms and two bath-rooms. From Burawai onwards there is one main room and one bath-room only. The bungalows at Besal and Gitidas, which are buried in snow most of the year, are in block-house form, the living rooms being in an upper story reached by steps. Each bungalow is furnished, and contains a little crockery, etc., but there is hardly enough of the latter for all requirements, and visitors should bring their own as a supplement. The road, which is in charge of the Military Works Department, is usually open as far as Naran or Batakundi early in June. It is not till the end of June or beginning of July that it is easily negotiable beyond. For visiting the valley, if it is desired to traverse the whole length, the best season is from the second half of June to the first half of September. Towards the end of September the flowers are less in evidence, and it becomes very cold in the higher tracts. In November snow closes the road again.

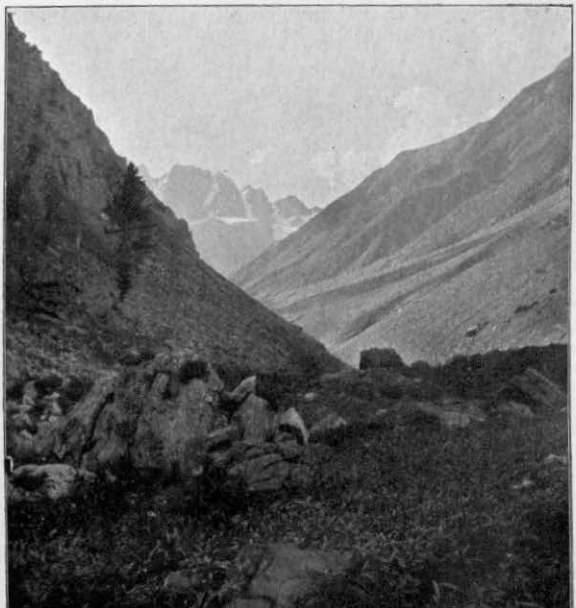
Abbottabad to Jaba (29½ *Miles*) *and Balakot* (40 *Miles*).—The stages from Abbottabad to Mansehra (16 miles) and from Mansehra to Jaba (13½ miles) need not detain us. The Kagan road leaves the Abbottabad-Kashmir road at Utar Shisha, 9 miles beyond Mansehra, and from this point one must either ride or walk. From Jaba to Balakot, at the mouth of the valley, the distance is 11½ miles. Jaba lies among *chir* trees on the north-eastern fringe of the Pakhli plain at a height of 3,583 feet. From it the road at once climbs to the ridge between the Kunhar valley and Pakhli. First Garhi Habibullah Khan, on the left bank of the river and facing the suspension bridge over which the Kashmir road runs, comes into view to the south, and further on one looks down on the fertile tract on either bank of the Kunhar south of Balakot, with Musa ka Musalla in the background. Passing

through a fine village forest of *chir*, the road descends into the valley, and 6½ more miles bring one to Balakot (3,320 feet). On the way, near the middle of the sixth mile from Balakot, a big round stone will be observed right in the centre of the road. Many years ago, so the story runs, this was placed there by a Gujar woman named Marian, of the village of Taranna, that lies a little further on. She was a female Hercules, and no one could compete with her in feats of strength. Some men can just lift the stone; the most powerful can raise it as high as the chest; but none can lift it above the head and carry it about as she did, and the stone remains where she put it, a monument of her prowess.

First Stage up the Valley: To Kawai, 12½ Miles from Balakot.—At Balakot the road crosses the river by a suspension bridge, and continues on the left bank for 69 miles, now 1,000 feet or more above the stream, now almost on a level with its turbulent waters. On the further side of the bridge the traveller passes through a colony of lepers, who have gathered here because the shrine of Bala Pir close by is supposed to be of efficiency in curing this disease. Two miles on the little village of Ghora is seen lying below the road, with Patlang on the opposite bank; 4 miles from Balakot is the Sanghar *katha*, with some of the houses of the village on the hill-slopes above; 5 miles further on the road crosses a bridge below which, after rain, is a fine waterfall; and at 10 miles from Balakot the Ghanul *katha* on the left bank, and the Bhauran on the right, join the main stream. This first march up the valley is hot and somewhat uninteresting, the peak of Musa ka Musalla to the west being the most striking feature of the scenery. The erosion of the hill-slopes on the right bank through destruction of the vegetation and extension of cultivation may be noticed. The Kawai bungalow is pleasantly situated at an altitude of 5,015 feet. The small hamlet of Kawai is to the east,



KAGAN VALLEY, ABOVE BURAWAI.



VIEW UP THE DABUKA NULLAH TO THE DABUKA RIDGE.

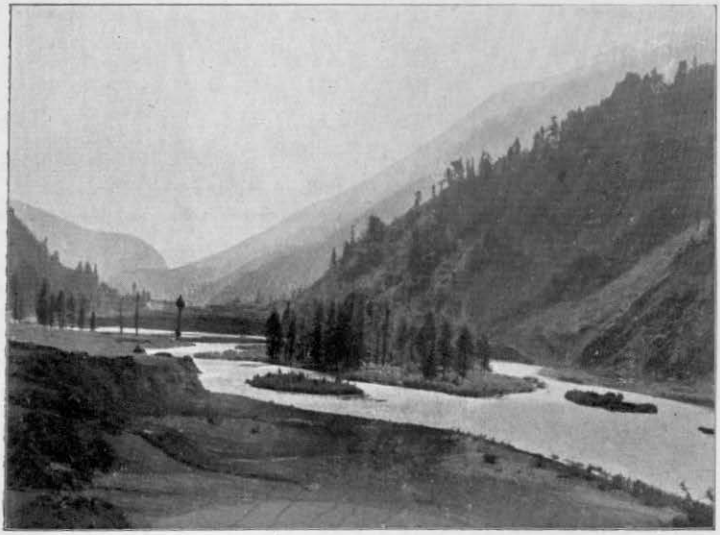
and in front, to the south-east, is the pine-clad spur of Paprang, leading up to Makra.

Second Stage: To Mahandri, 25½ Miles from Balakot.—From Kawai to Mahandri (13 miles). The road climbs the hill-side at a dizzy height above the river and then descends to the village of Paras, 4 miles from Kawai. The scenery now becomes fine. As one approaches Paras the splendid conical peak of Ragan Pajji, at the head of the Shikara *nullah*, comes into view, and, when the moist and fertile lands of the hamlet have been traversed, the deodar forests begin. The gorge narrows, and the road winds along one of the prettiest reaches of the river, through fine forests and with beautiful views of Raggan Pajji and his adjacent snows. Six and a half miles from Kawai the ruins of the Malkandi forest bungalow (4,714 feet) are passed. In June, 1905, a big landslip on the right bank of the river opposite the bungalow forced the river against its foundations, and it had to be hastily dismantled. After crossing the Bhunja and Shinu *kathas*, we come to the lands of Jared village (the main site is on the right bank), and, passing between some fields of magnificent maize (if it be sufficiently late in the season), we descend to the Mahandri bungalow. This is prettily situated by the junction of the Manur *katha* with the main stream, at an altitude of 5,000 feet, and looking north towards the peaks of Sirul (13,529 feet) and Chumbra.

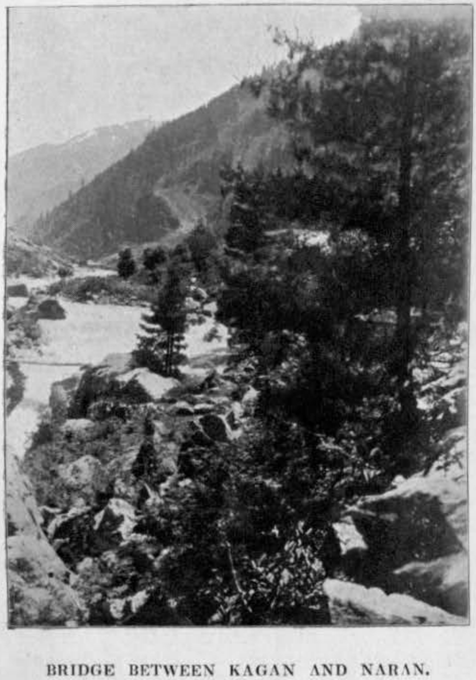
Third Stage: To Kagan, 36½ Miles from Balakot.—From Mahandri to Kagan (11 miles). Crossing the Manur and Nutni *kathas*, the road turns west, and runs through the lands of Phagal village. Opposite lies Kamalban and its finely wooded slopes of deodar. Six and a half miles on, at Diwan Bela, where Diwan Ibrahim was slain, the road turns north again, and passes through a splendid gorge with a striking wall of rock to the right. As one leaves the gorge the valley opens out, and the fertile lands of Kagan village come into view, with the scattered huts of Bhutandes across the river. Grass and water

are abundant, and flowers are more numerous than heretofore, the banks of the fields in August being very gay with pink mallows. But the scenery is somewhat disappointing. The collections of huts that form the village of Kagan lie under the Sirul peak, with the Kundi ridge to the north and Kaligat and Chumbra to the north-east. There is a bridge here by which the Gujar flocks and herds proceeding to or from the northern grazing grounds cross the river, and at which the Saiads usually collect their tolls. The altitude is 6,776 feet.

Fourth Stage : To Naran, 51 *Miles from Balakot.*—From Kagan to Naran (14½ miles). The road passes through a succession of fine gorges, with here and there a flat bit of cultivation along the river-bank. Three miles from Kagan there is a good view across the river up the Kinari *katha*, just above which is Rajwal, one of the chief hamlets in the Kagan estate. Five miles further, on the same side of the river, is the Bhimbal *katha*, with a fine deodar forest above it. The hills on the left bank are precipitous and well-wooded, and here and there a picturesque waterfall attracts the eye. If it be early in the summer the road now and then crosses a snow-slide. Near Naran a clear view is obtained of the Manur peak, to the right. The valley opens out, and round the hamlets of Batal, Chapra, and Naran itself there is a considerable quantity of dwarf maize (*pili shuri*), *drawa* or buckwheat, and *paighambari* barley. The river becomes broader and less rapid, and there is a beautiful view downstream, with some tree-covered islands in the foreground and the Rajkot peak in the distance. The soil is moist, the grass rich, and flowers are numerous. Some excellent wild raspberries are to be found on the hill-slopes. Naran itself is a collection of huts, 8,086 feet above sea-level, at the junction of the Naran *katha* with the Kunhar. A climb up to the ridge to the east is repaid by a good view of the Manur peak, and a 6 miles walk up the *katha* brings one to the Safr Maluk lake.



NEAR NARAN.



BRIDGE BETWEEN KAGAN AND NARAN.

Fifth Stage: To Batakundi, 61 *Miles from Balakot.*—From Naran to Batakundi (10 miles). The scenery during this march is very attractive. For the first part the road runs close along the edge of the river, which flows quietly in a wide channel. Four miles above Naran the Government forests come to an end, but in the village waste there are here and there fine groves of silver fir. The chief tributary streams are the Dhumduma and Sipat *kathas*, both on the right bank. On the edge of the latter, 5 miles below Batakundi, stands the small hamlet of Sahoch. As one nears Batakundi the hills become more rounded. Fine stretches of rolling grass downs take the place of forest; streamlets are numerous and flowers abundant. The fine jagged ridge of Dabuka comes into view to the east. A mile short of the bungalow is the Batakundi hamlet, with a little cultivation—the last maize that will be seen is grown here—and some rich grass meadows round it. The bungalow itself is situated at an altitude of 8,849 feet, near the junction of the Batakundi or Dhaddar *katha* with the Kunhar. It has a good view up the *katha*, and of the Dabuka peaks. On the ridge to the south, at a height of 10,000 feet, a splendid view of the Dhaddar snows at the end of the *katha* is obtained. This ridge, with its broad stretch of meadow and its profusion of flowers and wild strawberries, is well worth a visit, and makes a delightful camping-ground.

Sixth Stage: To Burawai, 69 *Miles from Balakot.*—From Batakundi to Burawai (8 miles). This is a short and easy march. The road crosses the Batakundi *katha*, and then winds along the hill-side at some height above the main stream. Trees, which are mostly silver fir and blue pine, become scantier, especially on the right bank; the hills are bare, and the scenery grows wilder and less interesting. But a fine view of the Dabuka peaks is obtained as the Dabuka *katha* is crossed, and flowers are still more abundant than before. The Burawai bungalow,

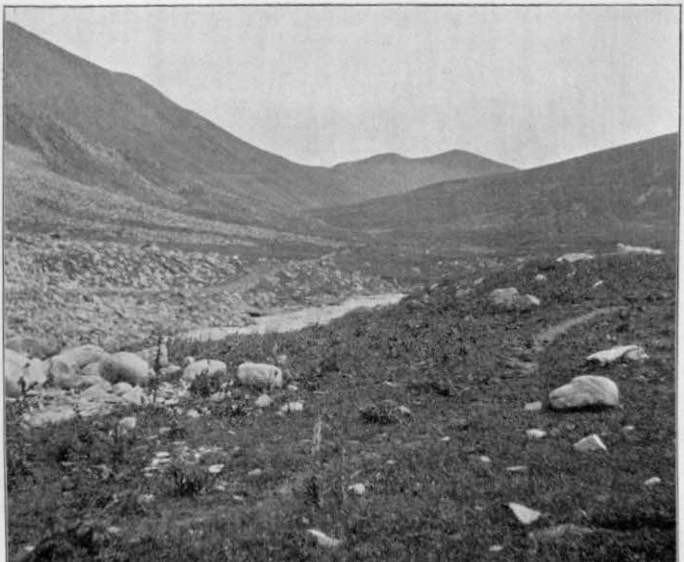
with a small hamlet close by, stands, at an altitude of 10,009 feet, on the right bank of the Jora *katha*, up which there is a good view to the snows of Lohat ka Sir and Ratti Gali. Cultivation ceases here, and it is also the highest point of the valley that is inhabited in winter.

Seventh Stage : To Besal, 80 *Miles from Balakot.*—From Burawai to Besal (11 miles). Immediately on leaving Burawai the road crosses to the right bank of the river. The hill-sides become barer than ever, but on the left bank there are still at first some blue pine and silver fir (much damaged by careless Gujars), and on the left the *charai,* or juniper, grows in considerable quantities. The Waitar *katha* and the fine peak of that name, which are both on the left bank, are passed, followed by the Jalkhad *nullah,* which is also on that bank, and up which there is a route into Kashmir. Here the fir and pine cease altogether. The hill-slopes become gentler and more grassy and flowers are everywhere. At Besal the valley opens somewhat, and, except for the flowers, the scenery reminds one of a bleak Scotch moor. Just below Besal the Purbiala *katha,* or '*katha* of the mutineers,' joins the Kunhar. The bungalow is situated at a height of 10,660 feet, near the stream coming down from Khabba (15,658 feet). Adjoining it is a beflagged heap of stones, of which it is told that one year, when the road was reopened, the body of a man was found lying in the bungalow, where, in the preceding winter, overcome by cold and hunger, he had crawled to die. He was raised to the rank of a holy man by the superstitious people, and the shrine in question marks his grave.

Eighth and Last Stage : To Gitidas, 88 *Miles from Balakot.*—From Besal to Gitidas (8 miles). The road climbs up two miles to Lulu Sar, and crossing the river at its source, skirts the eastern shore of the lake for 1½ miles. On the western side of the lake is the Aphuta Pani *katha*, up which runs the route to Jalkot in Kohistan. Leaving Lulu Sar and turning east, the road enters the



BRIDGE OVER THE STREAM AT GITIDAS.



VIEW UP THE GITIDAS GLEN TO THE BABUSAR PASS (WHICH IS MARKED WITH A SMALL WHITE CROSS).

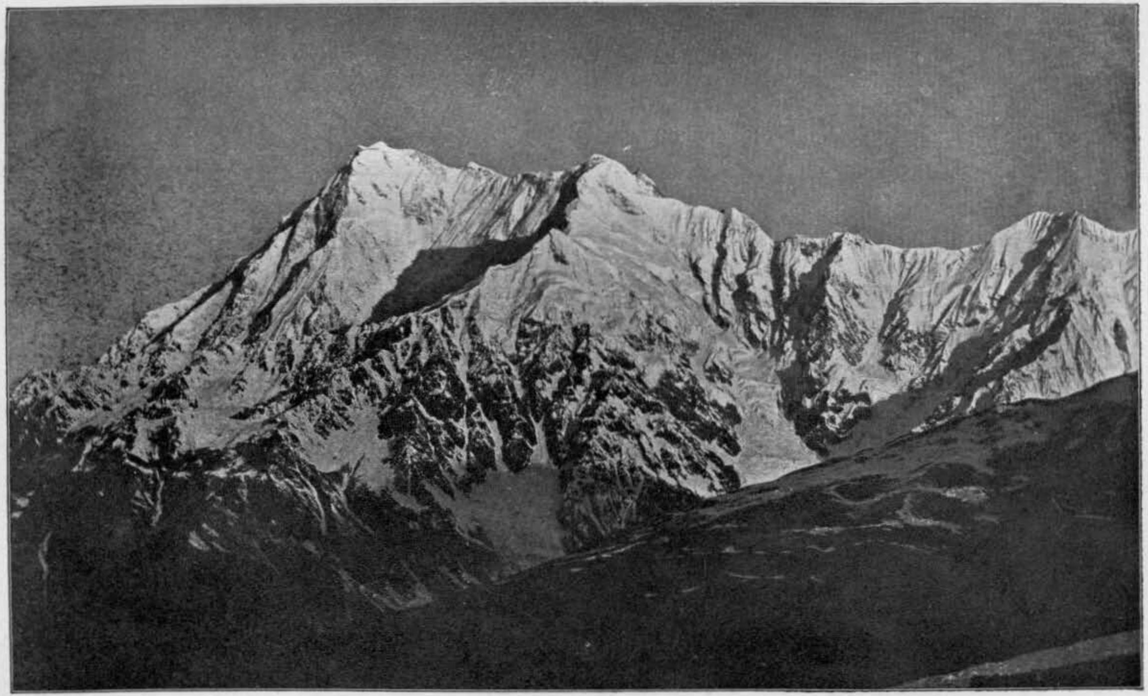
Gitidas glen, a long stretch of grassy, flowery meadow, traversed from east to west by the Gitidas *katha*. It is a paradise for graziers from Chilas and Lower Kagan. Three miles from Lulu Sar is to be noted, on the north, the Loi Halol or Pattoga *katha*, flowing from a valley frequented by Chilasi graziers, which at the Second Regular Settlement was held to belong to the Hazara District. The Gitidas bungalow lies at an altitude of 11,860 feet, near the edge of the Gitidas stream, and a little below the junction of the latter with the Kabulbashi or Thanda *katha*.

The Babusar Pass.—From Gitidas to Babusar in Chilas, where the Political Officer of that country has a small bungalow, is 11½ miles. It is nearly 4 miles to the summit of the Babusar pass (13,589 feet), and the rest is a steady descent. Chilas itself is 26 miles further on. The road to the pass is visible from the Gitidas bungalow, winding in an easy gradient along the hill that bounds the glen on the north side. The pass is well worth a visit for the view which it affords of the mountain ranges of Chilas, Gilgit, Kashmir, and Kagan itself. The traveller should ascend the hill on one or other flank of the pass (that to the west is easiest ; it is a twenty-minute climb of 400 or 500 feet), and he will be rewarded by a magnificent sight, for, almost due east and but 35 miles distant, the giant form of Nanga Parbat rises to a height of 26,620 feet, a wonderful spectacle of solitary grandeur before which the peaks of Kagan bow their diminished heads. And away to the north across the Indus is a fine panorama of snowy mountains, culminating in Raku Poshi, the great peak that lies beyond Gilgit.

Summary.—From the above description of the route it will be seen that the total distance from Abbottabad to the summit of the pass is nearly 132 miles. From Abbottabad to Gitidas there are altogether eleven stages, of which eight are within the valley itself. The stages are easy ones, and on one or two the march can be doubled

if necessary. Riding is feasible throughout (though here and there it will be safer to cross a snow-slide on foot), and there are many level bits, especially in the upper portions, where one can proceed at a good pace. Contractors provide ordinary supplies, if required, at all the stages.

Diversions from the Main Route.—He, however, who would explore the beauties of the valley should not confine himself to the main road. Discarding mule transport, let him provide himself with coolies and a small tent, and penetrate into the side valleys or climb the spurs that flank them. The glades of Rewari or Biari at the head of the Manur *katha,* the Lower Besri spur (9,000 feet above Jared) with its glorious view of Mali ka Parbat, Ragan Pajji, and the Bichla ridge, the Mansi spur above Bela, the Akhora spur above Hingrai, the plateaus of Rawalkot to the north-west of Kagan, or of Paya and Shogran above Kawai, and many another favoured spot, provide ideal camping-grounds, and well repay the trouble taken to reach them. A good detour to make is up the Naran *katha* to the Safr Maluk lake, and then across the Pir Gali (about 14,000 feet, a stiff climb) into the Manur *katha*, and so back to Mahandri. By this route the finest snows in Kagan are seen in their full glory. Another short diversion is up the Purbiala *katha* from Besal to the Dudibach Sar and round to Gitidas via the Thanda *katha*. Or from Bhunja one may climb to Paya and down to Kawai. Or from Kagan, Kamalban, or Paras one may strike across the hills and through the forests to the Musa ka Musalla ridge at Shadal Gali, and either descend into the Bhogarmang valley or walk along the ridge to Jaba. And by some of the nullahs to the east it is possible to reach the Kishanganga valley of Kashmir. Fortunate indeed is he whom duty or leisure enables to spend a month of wandering in this attractive corner of the Empire.



SUNRISE ON NANGA PARBAT (VIEW FROM A HILL AT THE HEAD OF THE KAGAN VALLEY).

CHAPTER IX

DIRECTORY

(The population figures are those of the Census of 1901, and the figures for cultivated area are those of the Second Regular Settlement.)

Abbottabad.—Head-quarters of the Abbottabad tahsil and of the District, situated in 34° 9′ north and 73° 13′ east, 4,120 feet above the sea. It is on the road from Hassan Abdal to Kashmir, and is 44¾ and 42 miles distant from the Hassan Abdal village and railway-station respectively, and 47 miles from Domel, where the Rawalpindi-Srinagar road is joined. It was founded in 1853, and named after Major James Abbott, the first Deputy Commissioner of Hazara (*vide* Chapter V.). A small settlement at first containing only one native infantry regiment, it has now become a considerable cantonment, the head-quarters of a brigade, and occupied by four native regiments (two battalions each of the 5th and 6th Gurkha Rifles) and three native mountain batteries. The Abbottabad cantonment and municipal area between them cover nearly 800 acres, and in 1901 contained a population of 7,764 souls. The number must now (A.D. 1907) be well over 8,000. For revenue purposes the cantonment and municipality form one estate, which is assessed to a land revenue of 95 rupees, that being the amount imposed at an all-round rate of about 3 rupees an acre on such of the land within municipal bounds as is not Government property or the site of the town. Most of the European residents live in bungalows

inside cantonment limits, but in the municipal area are the civil lines containing the bungalows of the Deputy Commissioner, the Superintendent of Police, the Deputy Conservator of Forests, and others ; and beyond this again are a few bungalows which have been constructed on the lands of the neighbouring villages.

Out of the population above mentioned, 3,395 live within the limits of the Municipality. There are five official and ten non-official members of the Committee, the Deputy Commissioner being president. The average income of the Municipality for the last ten years is 19,338 ruepes, and its expenditure 16,999 rupees. The latest return (for 1906) gives totals of 36,876 rupees and 24,941 rupees respectively. The funds are chiefly derived from octroi. The houses of the town lie huddled together on the slopes to the south of the cantonment. The population has become much congested of recent years, and plans for an extension to the east on the opposite side of the valley are under consideration. In the eastern quarter of the town lies the combined tahsil and thana ; to the south the civil hospital and the katchery. The dak bungalow and a small hotel are east of the tahsil, and between these and the katchery are the public gardens. The Municipal Board School lies between the hospital and the Katchery. It has 173 boys on its rolls, and is an Anglo-Vernacular High School, as is the Albert Victor School, which is maintained by the Arya Samaj, and lies immediately to the south of the tahsil. There are also two unaided girls' schools, one for Sikhs and one (maintained by the Arya Samaj) for Hindus. They have sixty-seven and forty-one scholars respectively. In the cantonment the bungalows of the European residents occupy the western portion. To the north are the infantry and artillery lines, and the south-eastern portion is taken up by the parade-ground, a splendid stretch of turf east of the Mansehra road, where there is plenty of room for polo, football, hockey, and golf, as well as for

more serious objects. In the centre the little church of St. Luke raises its spire above the trees, and immediately to the north of this is the Club, with its tennis-courts and croquet-lawns. At the back of the station to the west lies the 'Brigade Circular' hill, crowned with a forest of *chir*, which a public-spirited Deputy Commissioner planted in days gone by, earning for himself the gratitude of posterity.

A pleasant spot is Abbottabad, and most refreshing is its aspect to the dusty traveller as he emerges from the ugly barren hills that flank the Salhad pass. Nestling at the southern end of the Rash plain, with the snows of Kagan and Bhogarmang in the far distance to the north, and closer by, to the east, the beautifully wooded hills of Thandiani and the Galis, embowered in trees and studded with houses of almost English build, it affords a welcome relief from the monotonous regularity, white-washed uglinesses, and level, uninteresting surroundings of the ordinary cantonment. And if objections are raised to the bareness of the near hills by which it is encompassed, some of which hide the view of the sunset in addition to their other sins, yet even these look beautiful as they reflect at evening the glory of the western sky. In April, when the irises and fruit-trees are in blossom; in early May, when all the gardens and even the hedges of the roadside are ablaze with roses; in late October or in November, when the tallow-tree, the chenar, and the chestnut vie with each other in the splendour of their autumn tints, and a crispness in the air heralds the approaching winter, it is truly a good thing to be alive in Abbottabad.

Agror.—A small valley in the Mansehra tahsil, lying at the foot of the Black Mountain, and separated from Pakhli by the *chir*-clad ridge of Tanglai. Its greatest length is 13 miles from south to north, and its greatest breadth 11 miles from east to west. The total area is about 66 square miles. From the central plain at Oghi three horns extend—the Dilbori glen to the north, the

Kathai glen to the east, and the Arbora glen to the south. To the west, where the Unhar river, which, with its tributaries, drains the valley, makes its exit, lies Feudal Tanawal. Save at this point, mountain ranges varying in height from 9,000 to 5,000 feet enclose the valley on all sides.

At the Second Regular Settlement Agror was divided into fourteen estates, which comprise a large number of hamlets. The population is 16,983, made up of Swathis, Gujars, Saiads, and miscellaneous tribes. The cultivated area is some 21,000 acres. Maize is the chief crop, and is noted for its excellence. There are 5,996 acres of reserved forest (*vide* Chapter III.). The Swathis came into possession of the valley early in the eighteenth century, when, led by Saiad Jalal Baba, they expelled therefrom the Karlugh Turks. Towards the end of that century one Akhund Sad ud Din established his position as Khan of Agror, and strengthened himself by marrying the sister of Suba Khan, the chief of the Pallal Tanaolis. He died in 1783, and was succeeded by his son, Inayatullah Khan, who dispossessed most of the Swathis, and gave their lands to his retainers. Inayatullah Khan died in A.D. 1819, and was succeeded by his younger son, Ghafur Khan, who was Khan for fifteen years. In 1834 Painda Khan, the Amb chief, took possession of Agror, and Ghafur Khan had to flee. He was assassinated in 1835 at Painda Khan's instigation. The latter held Agror till 1841, when it was restored to Ata Muhammad Khan, son of Ghafur Khan, by the Sikhs.

The fortunes of Agror under British rule have been referred to in Chapter VI. Ata Muhammad Khan was deported in 1868 for instigating an attack by the trans-border tribes on the police post at Oghi, but in 1870 he was allowed to return to the valley. He died in 1875, and was succeeded by his son, Ali Gauhar Khan. Like his father, the latter could not keep aloof from intrigues with the trans-border tribes, with whom he was brought

into close connexion by his marriage with the sister of Hashim Ali Khan, chief of the Khankhel Hassanzais. In 1888 he was believed to have abetted raids into British territory, and was arrested and deported to Lahore. In 1891 the Agror Valley Regulation was passed, declaring all rights recognized as existing in the Khan of Agror or conferred by or in the records of rights of the Agror Settlement made and sanctioned in 1870 as forfeited to Government, and empowering the Local Government to appoint a Settlement Officer to deal with those rights. Under this Regulation the Second Regular Settlement of the valley was carried out in the years 1898 to 1900. By it the proprietary rights of the Khan, now forfeit to Government, were established over about half of the valley, and the rest was apportioned among his relatives, *serikhors*, and others. And, as described in Chapter IV., a large number of tenants were given occupancy rights. The revenue, which was in Sikh times 1,515 rupees, and was fixed by Major Abbott in 1853 at 3,315 rupees, and by Captain Wace in the First Regular Settlement at 4,000 rupees, was raised to 13,000 rupees, and 3,000 rupees were added for water-mills.

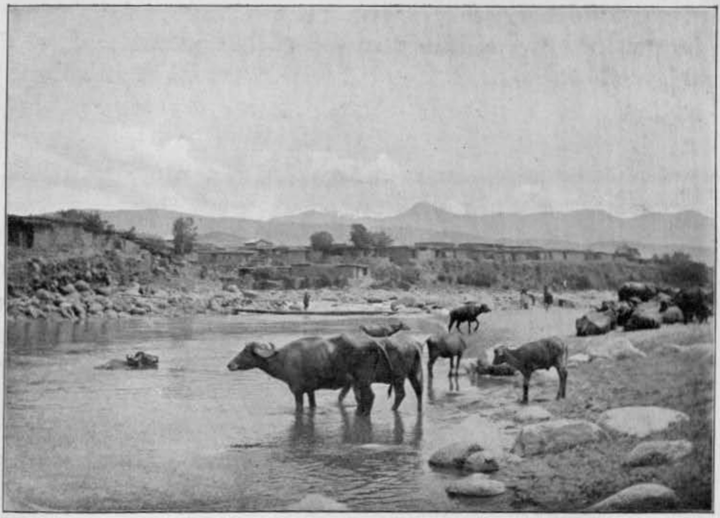
Baffa.—A town in the Mansehra tahsil, situated on the right bank of the Siran river, on the northern side of the Pakhli plain. The population is 7,829. It is really an overgrown village, for the population is largely rural in character, but it is also the principal mart of Northern Hazara and of the adjoining independent tracts, and some wealthy Hindus reside here. It was created a municipality in 1873, and within municipal limits the population is 7,029. The Committee consists of three officials and six non-official members, the Deputy Commissioner being the President. The average income (derived in the main from octroi) for the ten years ending 1906 was 5,102 rupees, and the average expenditure 4,861 rupees. In 1906 the income and expenditure were 6,392 rupees and 5,105 rupees respectively. There is a vernacular middle school,

maintained by the Municipality and District Board, with 135 boys on its rolls. There are also two aided girls' schools, one for Hindus and one for Muhammadans, containing twenty-nine and thirty scholars respectively. The estate of Baffa is a large and important one. It is 7,149 acres in area; of this 4,121 acres are cultivated, including 746 acres of irrigation; the land revenue assessed is 8,400 rupees. The irrigated land is exceptionally valuable, comprising as it does some of the richest rice-fields in Pakhli. There is a fine village forest of *chir* on a hill to the north, which, however, has suffered much from the villagers' depredations. The village was taken from the Turks by the Swathis, and is now the possession of the Sarkheli section of the latter tribe. There are thirteen *lambardars*.

Bagan.—A village in the Abbottabad tahsil, situated to the west of Kalabagh and Nathia Gali. In fact, the reserved forest, in which these locations lie, was carved to a great extent out of its area. The inhabitants number 3,017, and reside in a number of scattered hamlets. The area of the estate is 5,655 acres, of which 1,773 are cultivated, and the land revenue assessed thereon is 1,900 rupees. The proprietors are Karrals, and there are three *lambardars*.

Bagra.—An important village on the edge of the Haripur plain, 4 miles south of the Abbottabad road, and 9 miles east of Haripur. The population is 1,793. The area of the estate is 2,035 acres, including 875 acres of cultivation, and the land revenue assessment is 1,800 rupees. There is some valuable irrigated land on the Dor. The proprietors are Hassanzai Jaduns of the Pirukhel and Pinnukhel subsections, and there are three *lambardars*. The village is the chief mart in the upper portion of the Haripur plain. There is a primary school, with fifty-two scholars on its rolls.

Bakot.—The most important village in the Bakot tract, situated on a plateau above the Jhelum, whence it



BAFFA.



GARHI HABIBULLAH KHAN.

is about 2 miles down the hill to Kohala and to the bridge which takes the tonga road to Kashmir across the river. The population is 2,290. The village lands stretch up towards the Galis, and cover 6,024 acres, of which 1,738 are cultivated. The land revenue assessment is 1,750 rupees. There is a very fine village forest of pine and broad-leaved trees. The proprietors are Dhunds, and there are six *lambardars*. Adjoining the village is the police-station, which ranks in the second class. A recently started *zamindari* school has already fifty-six boys.

Balakot.—A very large village lying at the mouth of the Kagan valley, 23 miles from Mansehra. According to the census of 1901 its population was then no less than 15,383, but this was spread over an area of nearly 100 square miles, and included a large number of outlying hamlets. The old village of Balakot was split up at the Second Regular Settlement into eleven estates. Of these, Balakot proper has an area of 9,749 acres, of which 1,729 acres are cultivated. Its land revenue assessment is 3,300 rupees. The proprietors are Swathis, and their tenants, whom they squeeze unmercifully, are Gujars. There are ten *lambardars*. A number of Hindus concerned in the trade up and down the Kagan valley reside here. It was near this village that the Hindustani Khalifa Said Ahmad was slain in a fight with the Sikhs in the year 1830, as described in Chapter V. There is a primary school, with sixty-six boys, a Military Works rest-house, and a police-station of the first class.

Bara Gali.—A small hill cantonment, 15 miles from Abbottabad, and 25 miles from Murree, on the Abbottabad-Murree road. It is—if we except Thandiani—the northernmost of the line of hill-stations and cantonments that extends along the Dunga Gali ridge to Murree, and has an altitude of 7,900 feet. It lies on the west side of the ridge, at the point where a long spur strikes out towards the Rajoia plain, and is surrounded by Government

forest. During the summer months it is occupied by one of the British mountain batteries which are stationed at Rawalpindi in the winter. There is a season post and telegraph office.

Battal.—A large village lying near the head of the Konsh valley in the Mansehra tahsil. There is a Border Military Police post here, with a garrison of sixteen men under a *jemadar*, and a primary school, with sixty boys on its rolls. The population is 1,791. The area of the estate is 2,612 acres, of which 1,953 acres are cultivated, and the land revenue assessment, all of which is assigned to the Khan of Garhi Habibullah Khan, is 1,400 rupees. The proprietors are Swathis of the Mandravi and Aznavi subsections. The former include the most important family in the glen. There are two *lambardars*—Dost Muhammad Khan and Amir Khan—but the most influential man is Bara (or Bahram) Khan, uncle of the former, who has an *inam* of 150 rupees.

Bela Kawai.—A large but scattered village in the Kagan valley, 14 miles above Balakot, and lying on either side of the Kunhar. It was split up into four estates—Kawai-Suan, Bela Sacha, Paras, and Chushal—at the Second Regular Settlement. Their combined area is 18,390 acres, which include 2,943 acres of cultivation, and their land revenue assessment is 3,200 rupees. The Saiad proprietors are referred to in Chapter III. Chushal is under an old-standing mortgage to the Swathi proprietors of Jared village, who are in possession. There are altogether three *lambardars*.

Bharu Phuldhar.—A small village in the Haripur tahsil, 6 miles to the north-west of Haripur, on the right bank of the Dor. It is noticeable only because at Bharukot, within its limits, the troops garrisoning Hazara were cantoned before they moved to Abbottabad in 1853. It was from here that the Afghan army was recalled at the close of the second Sikh war.

Bhogarmang.—The most important village in the Bho-

garmang valley of the Mansehra tahsil. It lies on the left bank of the Siran, about 8 miles from the entrance to the valley. The population is 1,157, and the total area 2,664 acres, including 621 acres of cultivation. The land revenue assessment is 650 rupees. The proprietors are Jahangiri Swathis, and there are two *lambardars*, of whom one—Muzaffar Khan by name—has a *jagir* and an *inam*, and is the most influential person in the valley.

Boi.—A small village on the Kunhar, 6 miles or so above its junction with the Jhelum, and noticeable because it gives its name to the surrounding tract, and is the head-quarters of one of the biggest *jagirdars* in the district—Sultan Barkat Khan, Bamba. The population is 250, the total area 576 acres, including 213 cultivated, and the land revenue assessment—all assigned to the *jagirdar*, who is also proprietor of the village—130 rupees. A *zamindari* school, which has recently been started, has thirty-six scholars on its rolls.

Changla Gali.—A hill-station on the Murree-Abbottabad road, 9 miles from the former and 31 miles from the latter place (or 29 if the route by the pipe line is followed). It is splendidly situated amid pine forests at an altitude of 8,400 feet, and is the highest of all the hill-stations in the district, except Thandiani. It boasts a hotel and a dak bungalow, and is the head-quarters of the First Circle School of Musketry. From the ruins of the old mess-house above the hotel a fine view is obtained of the Jhelum valley, with Nanga Parbat in the background, and the picturesquely situated dak bungalow on the western face of the hill commands a striking prospect of Murree, the southern portion of the Hazara District, and the distant plain of Rawalpindi.

Dannah.—A small village perched on the ridge to the east of Lora, and only some 2 miles from Gora Gali on the Murree road. The population is 565. It is worth noticing, because it used to be the site of an important Sikh

fort, which at annexation was converted into a police-station. At a later date the police were transferred to Lora, and the fort is now a ruin. The village also contains a well-known shrine, that of Dhummat Khan, from whom all the Dhunds claim to be descended. The proprietors are Hastal Dhunds, and there are five *lambardars*, an unnecessarily large number.

Darband.—One of the most important villages in Feudal Tanawal. It lies on the left bank of the Indus, 3 miles north of Kirpilian and the boundary of the Haripur tahsil, and half a mile below the junction of the Unhar with the bigger river. There is a small bazaar, where Hindus reside, and there is a ferry across to the trans-Indus territory of the Khan of Amb. The Khan realizes a considerable income at this point from tolls taken on the timber floated down the Indus. He has a house here, and there is also an old Sikh fort. The road from Kirpilian to Oghi passes through the village, which has on several occasions been used as a starting-point for operations in frontier expeditions.

Dehdar.—A village 9 miles from Haripur on the road to Hassan Abdal, and noticeable only because adjoining it is a camping-ground for troops on the march to and from Abbottabad. Population, 508. The proprietors are Gujars, and there is one *lambardar*.

Dhamtaur.—A large and important village 5 miles east of Abbottabad on the Murree road and on the right bank of the Dor. In old days it gave its name to the surrounding tract. Population, 3,920. The estate extends into the Rash Plain, and includes much of the land round Abbottabad. Its area is 5,513 acres, of which 2,308 acres are cultivated. Its land revenue assessment is 4,000 rupees, and there are 97 water-mills, some of them very valuable, which pay 1,263 rupees more. There is a branch post-office in the village and a primary school with 108 boys. The proprietors are Hassanzai Jaduns, and there are 11 *lambardars*. The village ranks next in

importance to Nawanshahr among the marts of the Abbottabad tahsil, and several prosperous Hindus reside here. The well-known shrine and tank of Jamal Ghazi lie in a beautiful grove a mile from the village in the Abbottabad direction on the right bank of the Darkhan, a tributary of the Dor.

Dhudial.—An important village in the Pakhli plain, on the left bank of the Siran, some 9 miles north of Mansehra. Population, 3,979. Total area of estate, 3,759 acres, of which 2,733 are cultivated, including some rich irrigated land. The fields are much mixed up with those of the adjoining Turk village of Girwal. The land revenue assessment is 4,800 rupees. The proprietors are Swathis, and there are eleven *lambardars*. The village is notable for its mules, of which there are over 300. They come mostly from Nandihar, and are of small size. They are employed in carrying merchandise and grain, and it is estimated that the village has an annual income of at least 1,500 rupees from this source. There is a primary school, with sixty boys on its rolls.

Dunga Gali.—A hill-station, at an elevation of 7,800 feet, on the road from Abbottabad to Murree, 22 miles from the former and 18 miles from the latter place. It is picturesquely situated on the slopes of the Moshpuri hill (9,232 feet), and commands a beautiful southward view of the range to which that hill belongs and of the series of wooded spurs that project from it towards the Jhelum. There is a post and telegraph office, a combined tahsil and police-station, a dak bungalow, a Military Works rest-house, a hotel, and a small church. These are all open during the summer months only. Dunga Gali is a favourite resort for European residents of the Punjab and North-West Frontier Province, and contains fifteen bungalows. There is a 'club' with two lawn-tennis courts. Together with Nathia Gali, 2 miles to the north, the station forms a Notified Area. It is connected with Nathia Gali not only by the main road, but

also by an upper path, 3 miles in length, which leads through very beautiful scenery and crosses the 'Karral' Harroh at its source.

Garhi Habibullah Khan.—An important village on the Abbottabad-Kashmir road, 19 miles from Mansehra and 12 from Domel. It is situated on the left bank of the Kunhar, which the road here crosses by a suspension bridge. There is a second-class police-station, a primary school of eighty-one boys, and a dak bungalow, the last being on the right bank of the river. The population is 2,838, the total area of the estate 3,772 acres, including 1,366 acres of cultivation, and the land revenue assessment 1,900 rupees. The village is the residence of Muhammad Husain Khan, the leading Khan of the Swathis, after one of whose ancestors it is named. Before Habibullah Khan's time it was known as Garhi Saadat Khan. The Khan is also the *lambardar* and chief proprietor, and the whole revenue is assigned to him. The village is a trade centre of some importance, and a number of Hindus reside here.

Ghazi.—A village on the Indus, 12 miles below Tarbela and at the head of the Khari tract. There is a first-class police-station here and a District rest-house, which formerly belonged to the Salt Department. The population is 827, the total area of the estate 862 acres, including 296 acres of cultivation, and the total land revenue assessment 300 rupees. Half the revenue is assigned to the proprietors, who are Tarkhelis and have three *lambardars*.

Ghora Dhaka (or perhaps rather Gora Dhaka, 'the British soldiers' hill').—A hill cantonment that lies at an altitude of about 7,700 feet, 3 miles from Dunga Gali and 15 from Murree, on a spur that projects towards the Jhelum. The road over the pipe line conveying the Murree water-supply from the springs that are the source of the 'Karral' Harroh, passes through it. There is a post and telegraph office here in the summer months, during which period

it is occupied by a detachment of British infantry. The men live in tents, whose white canvas is a conspicuous feature of the landscape.

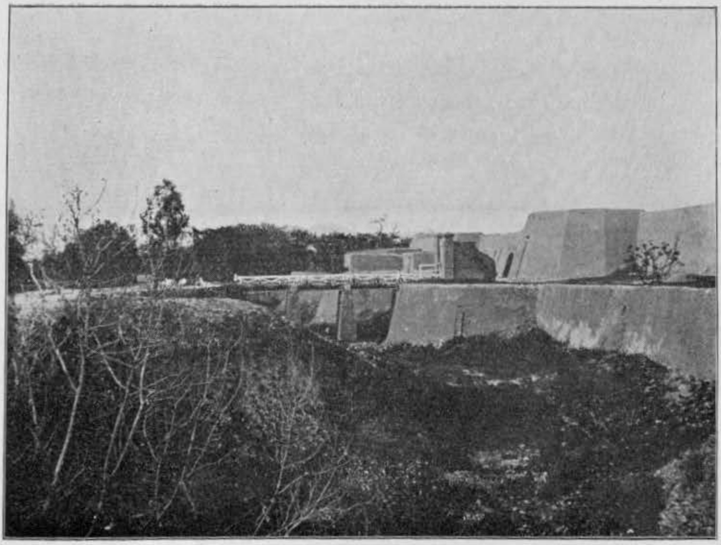
Haripur.—The head-quarters of the Haripur tahsil, situated a mile to the west of the left bank of the Dor, on the Abbottabad-Hassan Abdal road. It is 23 miles from the former place and 21 and 19¾ miles from Hassan Abdal village and railway-station respectively. Population, 5,860. The town was founded in 1822 by Sardar Hari Singh, after whom it is called. It was surrounded by a wall, of which few traces now remain. Half a mile to the east he built the fort of Harkishangarh, a formidable stronghold with immensely thick walls and a deep trench. It is now a combined tahsil and police-station, but the trench has been partially filled in and the walls are not so high as they were. To the east of this, again, is an orchard, known as 'Hari Singh *ka bagh*,' in a portion of which lies an old European cemetery containing among others the graves of the Salt officers, Carne and Tapp, whose murder by Hassanzais in 1851 led to the first Black Mountain Expedition. The area of the Haripur estate is 446 acres, of which 311 are cultivated, and its land revenue assessment is 3,546 rupees. The soil receives ample irrigation from the Dor and is very fertile, a considerable portion being under gardens of fruit or vegetables. The proprietors are the Qazis of Sikandarpur, with a number of *malik qabzas*. Qazis Fazal Ilahi and Abdullah Jan are the two *lambardars*. There is a dak bungalow, with Canara's monument hard by, and a 'Sessions House,' which is commonly used as a rest-house. The latter is built out from a corner of the old city wall, and is a quaint erection, with a pretty little garden in front.

In Abbott's time, as under the Sikh domination, Haripur was the head-quarters of the District, but soon after he left Hazara Abbottabad took its place. Though shorn of its former glory, it is a thriving town enough, and is

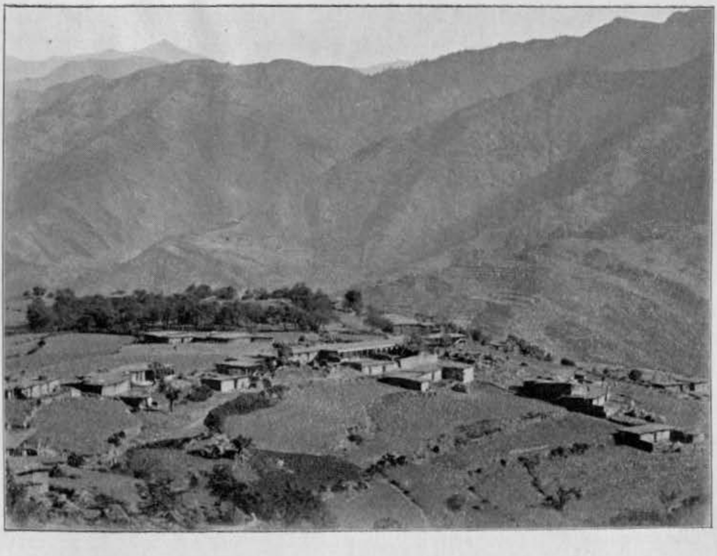
the centre of a considerable trade between Kashmir and independent territory on the one hand and the Punjab and North-West Frontier Province on the other. There is a Municipal Committee, with five official and twelve non-official members, the Deputy Commissioner being the president. The average income of the Municipality for the ten years ending 1906 was 17,406 rupees and the expenditure 16,109 rupees. For the year 1906 the income and expenditure were 21,384 rupees and 20,146 rupees respectively. The income is received chiefly from octroi, but the municipal gardens and *nazul* lands bring in a considerable amount. There is a hospital, in charge of an assistant-surgeon, and an Anglo-Vernacular middle school, with 259 boys on its rolls.

Hatar.—A village 13 miles south of Haripur on the road to Serai Kala, a station on the North-West Railway 9 miles distant. It is noticeable only because within its limits there is a camping-ground for troops on the march to or from Rawalpindi. Population, 1,220. Area, 4,051 acres, of which 2,781 are cultivated. Land revenue assessment 1,900 rupees. The proprietors are the sons of the late Raja Jahandad Khan, Gakhar, of Khanpur.

Kagan.—The chief village in the Kagan valley, on the left bank of the Kunhar, 38 miles above Balakot. The estate covers the enormous area of 344,844 acres, or 540 square miles, for all the waste land at the head of the valley is included in it. In this huge tract only 1,490 acres are cultivated, most of the land being at too high an elevation to be used for anything but grazing purposes. The population in March, 1901, numbered 3,782, but it is much larger in the summer months, when the waste lands are overrun by graziers from other parts of the district, and from Kashmir and independent territory. The land revenue assessment (which takes account of the very considerable income received from grazing fees) is 3,000 rupees, of which one-third is assigned to the Saiad proprietors. Most of these live in the collection of huts



THE HARIPUR FORT (NOW THE TAHSIL).



BAKOT, WITH GALI HILLS IN THE BACKGROUND.

which form the main village site, while their Gujar tenants are scattered among numerous hamlets. There are four *lambardars*. For further details, Chapter VIII. may be consulted.

Kakul.—A village on the eastern side of the Rash plain, 4 miles north-east of Abbottabad. Population, 1,361. Total area, 3,102 acres, including 1,088 cultivated. The proprietors are Mansur Jaduns, who are called Shekhs, and hold rather a high position in the tribe. But the village's claim to mention rests on other grounds. In the spring of 1902 a thousand or more Boer prisoners were sent here from South Africa, and when they left at the close of the year the ground to the west of the village site, which they occupied, was retained in Government hands, and was converted into a station for the fourth native mountain battery in the Abbottabad brigade. It lies at a slightly higher elevation than the old cantonment, and is a cooler and more airy site. In the hill at the back is the spring from which Abbottabad derives the main portion of its excellent water-supply. Other features of the place are the cemetery, where Boers who died during their captivity and one or two of their guards (from the 60th Rifles) lie side by side, and the cairn of stones erected by the prisoners when the welcome news of the conclusion of peace was received.

Kalabagh.—A hill cantonment on the Abbottabad-Murree road between Bara Gali and Nathia Gali, 18 miles from Abbottabad and 22 from Murree. It is situated 7,700 feet above sea-level at the head of a spur which runs south-westwards between the Samundar *katha* and the Karral branch of the Harroh. Like Bara Gali, it is occupied during the summer months by a British mountain battery from Rawalpindi. There is a season post and telegraph office.

Khaira Gali.—A hill cantonment, at an altitude of 7,700 feet, on the Abbottabad-Murree road, 3 miles south of Changla Gali. It is 6 miles from Murree and 34

from Abbottabad. It commands a fine view on either side of the ridge, and its red-roofed houses are a conspicuous feature of the landscape. Like Kalabagh and Bara Gali, it is occupied in the summer by a British mountain battery from Rawalpindi.

Khalabat.—A fairly large village, a little to the west of the Tarbela road, 5 miles from Haripur. It derives its name from the upright stone (*khala vatta*) which may be seen in the mosque. The Khans of Khalabat are the leading Utmanzais in Hazara (*vide* Chapter II.). The population is 1,762, the total area 1,454 acres, and the cultivated area 1,152, practically all irrigated. The land revenue assessment is 3,000 rupees, of which all but 800 rupees is assigned to Muhammad Aman Khan, the head of the family, who is also the *lambardar*. There is a sub-post-office and a primary school, with fifty-two boys.

Khanpur.—The most important village in the Khanpur tract and the head-quarters of the chief of the Gakhars. It is situated picturesquely on the right bank of the Harroh, 16 miles south of Haripur, in an open valley a little above the Panjkatha plain, and at a height of 1,937 feet above sea-level. Population, 3,314. The total area of the estate is 3,962 acres, including 1,731 acres cultivated. The Khanpur gardens, which lie mostly on the right bank of the Harroh beneath the village, are noted. They grow vines, apricots, plums, loquats, and other fruit-trees, and also sugar-cane, turmeric, and vegetables. The land revenue assessment is 3,600 rupees. The proprietors are Gakhars, and the two leading Rajas of the tract are the *lambardars*. There is a first-class police-station, a primary school with seventy-five boys on its rolls, and the 'Wace' Hospital, erected by the late Raja Jahandad Khan. The latter also built for himself a palatial residence, which dominates the village.

Khanspur.—A location situated on the same spur as the Ghora Dhaka cantonment, of which it forms part, but at a slightly lower level. It is occupied during the summer

by a detachment of British infantry, who, as at Ghora Dhaka, live in tents.

Khote Ki Qabr (*or 'The Donkey's Grave'*).—This is the name given to a small bazaar and tonga stage on the Abbottabad-Hassan Abdal road, 6 miles from the former place. The grave from which it takes its name is on the right bank of the Salhad stream, a little distance to the north of the bridge, in a small cemetery. The story runs that in the days before Sikh rule the villagers of Dhamtaur began to encroach upon and cultivate the Salhad lands here. It was too far for them to return at midday to their own village for their food, so their womankind used to load it on a donkey, who, unattended, took his way to where his masters were at work. As he drew near he would bray, and the men would come and eat their dinners, and then, loading the donkey with the empty vessels, would send him back again to Dhamtaur. The victims of the encroachments, who were not strong enough to compel the Dhamtaur men to release their lands by force, took counsel together, and came to the conclusion that if they killed the donkey their enemies would find it too much trouble to go home every day for their food, and would give up cultivating the land. So one day they laid in wait for the donkey, and killed him as he came along. Thereupon his masters, grieved at the death of the faithful animal, and not desiring to leave his body a prey to vultures and jackals, gave him an honourable burial, and raised a pile of stones over his grave, that remains until this day.

Kirpilian.—A small village situated on the left bank of the Indus at the extreme north-west corner of the Badhnak tract in the Haripur tahsil. There is a second-class police-station here, and a small rest-house. In the former ten Border Military Policemen are also quartered. Opposite, on the right bank of the river, lies the village of Amb, in Independent Tanawal. The population of Kirpilian is 329, its total area 322 acres, with a cultivated

area of 114 acres, and its land revenue assessment, which is all assigned to the Khan of Amb, 100 rupees. The proprietors are Bagial Tanaolis, and there is one *lambardar*.

Kot Najibullah.—A large village 6 miles south-west of Haripur, on the road to Serai Kala. It was founded by Najibullah Khan, Tarin, but is now the property of the Gujars. Population, 4,293. Total area, 4,834 acres, including 2,751 acres cultivated. The land revenue assessment, which is assigned to Mukaddam Mir Abdullah, the *lambardar* and the leading Gujar in the Haripur plain, is 2,700 rupees. There are some valuable wells in the Soka *kas*, which runs to the north of the village. The rest of the land is unirrigated. There is a vernacular middle school, with 160 boys on its rolls. The Hindus of the village are a strong body, and there is a considerable amount of trade.

Lora.—A village of some importance, lying on the left bank of the Dhund Harroh, in an open valley between offshoots of the Murree and Dunga Gali ranges. It is only 4 miles from Gora Gali on the Murree-Rawalpindi road. There is a second-class police-station here, and a primary school, with fifty-eight boys. The population is 1069, the total area of the estate 2,484 acres, including 725 under cultivation, and the land revenue assessment 1,125 rupees. The proprietors are Hasnal Dhunds, and there are two *lambardars*.

Manakrai.—A large village on the right bank of the Dor, opposite Haripur. Population, 1,350. Total area, 3,119 acres, including 1,307 cultivated, and land revenue assessment 3,200 rupees. There are some good orchards and some excellent irrigated land. It is one of the few remaining Turk villages in the District, and once appears to have been the head-quarters of Turkish rule. There are four *lambardars*—three of them Turks and one a Saiad.

Mansehra.—A large village, the head-quarters of the Mansehra tahsil, situated 3,682 feet above sea-level at the southern end of the Pakhli plain on the Bhut stream,

which is an affluent of the Siran. It lies on the Abbottabad-Kashmir road, 16 miles north of the former place. Population, 5,807. Total area of estate, 5,059 acres, including 3,522 cultivated, and land revenue assessment 3,600 rupees. The proprietors are Khankhel Swathis, and there is one *lambardar*—Muhammad Husain Khan. There used to be a second *lambardar*, but in 1891 Juma Khan, the then holder of the appointment, forfeited his position by assisting in the escape of Fazal Ali Khan, the agent of the Khan of Agror, from the Haripur lock-up. There are an Anglo-Vernacular middle school, with 190 boys on its rolls; a hospital, a tahsil, and police-station combined; and a dak bungalow and civil rest-house close together. From the latter a fine view is obtained across the Pakhli plain to the snows of Bhogarmang and Kagan, Musa ka Musalla being prominent in the centre. In the distance to the north-west is the dark ridge of the Black Mountain, and nearer by is the Bareri hill, with the queer-shaped boulders on its summit that are held sacred by the Hindus.

Mirpur.—A large village at the northern end of the Rash plain, 5 miles from Abbottabad, and a little to the east of the road to Mansehra. There are two village sites, the upper and the lower. The population is 2,475, the total area 3,829 acres, including 2,221 cultivated, and the land revenue assessment 3,700 rupees. The proprietors are Mansur Jaduns, and there are five *lambardars*. Mirpur is best known for its stables, a tin-roofed block of buildings on the Mansehra road, where Government stallions from the Punjab and North-West Frontier Province are sent to spend the summer.

Nara (*I.*).—An important village on the western edge of the Dhan plain in the Abbottabad tahsil. It lies 21 miles south of Abbottabad itself, by a somewhat circuitous road. The population is 1,093, the total area 2,464 acres, including 923 acres of cultivation, and the land revenue assessment 1,150 rupees. The proprietors are Karrals, and there are two *lambardars*. In former

times it was a stronghold of the Karral tribe, and the Sikhs built a fort here, which has now been converted into a second-class police-station. It is placed in a conspicuous position on the hill above the village overlooking the Dor plain.

Nara (II.).—A small village lying on the edge of the Haripur plain at the base of the Gandgar range, some 8 miles north-west of Haripur. Population, 82 only. Total area, 570 acres, including 177 cultivated. The land revenue assessment, which is assigned to the proprietor, Ghulam Yahiya, Kureshi, is 100 rupees. This little village is famous as the scene of Sardar Hari Singh's defeat by the Utmanzais and their allies in A.D. 1824, and a white pillar on the hill above commemorates the event, though the inscription on it has been removed by some enemy of the Utmanzais. The position of the village was important in former times, as it commanded the most practicable route to Sirikot and the heart of the Gandgar hills. It was therefore chosen by Major Abbott to be his head-quarters, while he bade defiance to the Sikhs in the manner described in Chapter V.

Nathia Gali.—A hill-station in the Abbottabad tahsil, on the road from Abbottabad to Murree. It is some 20 miles from either place by that road, but the pipe line shortens the journey to Murree by about 2 miles. Its altitude is some 8,200 feet, and it commands fine views of the snows of Kashmir and Kohistan on the one side and of the southern portion of the District and the Rawalpindi plain on the other. In the foreground, to the north-east rise the green slopes of Miran Jani (9,793 feet), and beyond in the far distance on a clear day may be seen the white cone of Nanga Parbat, towering above its neighbours. With its ridges thickly clothed by pine, maple, chestnut, and oak, Nathia Gali is one of the most beautiful of hill-stations, though for grandeur and comprehensiveness of view it must yield to Thansiani. The Chief Commissioner of the North-West Frontier Province has his



NATHIA GALI AND KALABAGH, FROM THE MOSHPURI RIDGE.



THANDIANI DAK BUNGALOW, WITH MIRANJANI AND THE GALI HILLS IN THE BACKGROUND.

summer residen ar connecting the Nathia Gali and Miran Jar there are seventeen bungalows for Europea There are also a small bazaar, a hospital, a med post and telegraph office. Nathia G a Gali together form a Notified Area under al Act, the Deputy-Commissioner, Civil S istant Secretary to the Chief Commissione onservator of Forests, and *Naib-Tahsildar* of D onstituting the committee.

.—A small town in the south-eastern corner plain, 3 miles east of Abbottabad. Population whole estate, 5,945; of the Municipality, 4,114. area of the estate is 5,655 acres, including res under cultivation. The land revenue assessment 0 rupees, and in addition 330 rupees are paid on r-mills which are situated on the streams flowing the Rash plain into the Dor. The proprietors are ur Jaduns, of high standing in the tribe, and there thirteen *lambardars*. The town is the chief market he Abbottabad tahsil, and contains a number of perous Hindus. A Municipality was constituted in . There are three official and seven non-official nbers, and the Deputy-Commissioner is the President. ing the ten years ending with 1906 the income averaged ,800 rupees, and the expenditure 2,684 rupees. In the ear 1906 the figures were 3,497 rupees and 3,359 rupees espectively. There is a branch post office, and a primary school has 122 boys on its rolls. To the east of the town is the site of what was once Major Abbott's bungalow.

Oghi.—A village in the Agror valley 20 miles north-west of Mansehra, and lying under the shadow of the Black Mountain. It was the residence of the Khan of Agror, now an exile, and the ruins of his house crown the mound on which the village stands. Oghi was the starting-point for various Black Mountain expeditions, and used to contain a small detachment of regular troops. These have now been replaced by the Hazara Border Military

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Police, who have their head-quarters in the fort, which is situated on a level stretch of ground to the north of the village. Altogether about 100 men are stationed here, under their Subadar-Major. The fort also contains a first-class police-station. Hard by is a hospital, a disused dak bungalow, and a civil rest-house. The last is the residence of the Commandant of the Border Military Police, when he is a European. Half a mile away to the south are two small cemeteries, where some British soldiers who died during the Black Mountain Expeditions are buried. The Oghi estate comprises the four hamlets of Oghi, Bazar, Maloga, and Haji Kamr. The population is 1,568, the total area 2,269 acres, including 1,315 cultivated, and the land revenue assessment 1,250 rupees. The soil is some of the best in Agror. There are five *lambardars*. The exiled Khan of Agror was the proprietor, but his rights have now been transferred to the Government. There are a combined post and telegraph office, and a *zamindari* school, with forty-five boys.

Panian.—A largish village five miles west of Haripur on the Hassan Abdal road. Population, 1,830; total area, 2,375 acres, including 2,080 cultivated, and land revenue assessment, 2,800 rupees. The soil is an excellent *maira*, and there are a few wells. The proprietors are Panis, a branch of Kakar Pathans, and are a sturdy, well-behaved lot, and excellent cultivators. There are four *lambardars*, the chief of whom—Ahmad Khan—holds the neighbouring village of Ghanea in *jagir*.

Phulra.—The chief village in the Phulra State, and the residence of the Khan. It lies on a small elevation a mile from the right bank of the Siran, and about 10 miles west of Mansehra. A stream flows past it, irrigating some gardens and rice-fields, and turning a few water-mills. But most of the land is unirrigated. It includes some of the best soil in the State, but this is not saying much. The population numbers 604 souls. There are a few Hindus; the rest are Tanaolis.

Rajoia.—A large village on the left bank of the Dor, south of the Sarban hill, and about 10 miles from Abbottabad. It is the centre of the stony plain which forms the eastern continuation of the Haripur tract. The population is 2,720, the total area 4,696 acres, including 2,211 acres of cultivation, and the land revenue assessment 2,000 rupees. The soil is most of it bad stony stuff of the *dhangar* type. The proprietors are chiefly Salar Jaduns, and there are seven *lambardars*. The village is a small centre of trade between Haripur and the Galis. It contains a branch post office.

Salam Khand (sometimes spelt 'Simal Khand').—One of the chief villages of the Tarkheli tribe in the Gandgar range, 4 miles east of Ghazi. Population, 951. Total area, 4,772 acres, including 556 acres cultivated. The land revenue assessment, of which three-quarters are assigned to the Tarkheli proprietors, is 530 rupees. There are two *lambardars*. Salam Khand was the head-quarters of the robber bands that in pre-annexation days, when the Sikh rule was relaxed, used to harry the surrounding country. But after its capture by Major Abbott and the submission of the tribe, as described in Chapter V., the proprietors mended their ways, and several distinguished themselves by loyal service against the Sikhs. For an account of the fight between Major Abbott and Chattar Singh in the vicinity of this village a reference may be made to the chapter above mentioned. A considerable proportion of the proprietors are now in Government service. There is a primary school, with forty-four boys, and an aided girls' school has recently been started, with fourteen scholars.

Salhad.—A large village 2 miles to the south of Abbottabad, on the Hassan Abdal road. Population, 3,508; total area of estate, 5,279 acres, including 2,021 acres cultivated, and land revenue assessment, 2,650 rupees. The proprietors are Hassanzai Jaduns of the Ismailzai and Badalzai subsections, and there are six *lambardars*.

Serai Saleh.—An important village owned by Dilazaks on the left bank of the Dor, 3 miles east of Haripur. Population, 3,571; total area of estate, 2,343 acres, including 1,673 acres cultivated, and land revenue assessment, 4,583 rupees. The valuable water-mills, most of which grind snuff instead of grain, and have been referred to in Chapter III., pay an assessment of 1,256 rupees. Ahmad Khan, Dilazak, is *lambardar*, and has an *inam* of 150 rupees. The Serai Saleh lands are of the richest in the tahsil; there are a number of orchards and many acres under turmeric and sugar-cane. There is a branch post office, and a primary school has 102 scholars on its rolls.

Shekhan Bandi.—A village immediately to the east of Abbottabad, almost adjoining the parade ground. Its lands, which include some of the richest soil in the Rash plain, are much mixed up with those of Dhamtaur. The population is 2,874, the total area 1,628 acres, including 715 acres under cultivation, and the land revenue assessment 1,700 rupees. The proprietors are Hassanzai Jaduns, and there are six *lambardars*. A large number of the villagers take service of various kinds in Abbottabad, but they have not an over-good reputation.

Shergarh.—An important village in Feudal Tanawal, 4 miles south of Oghi, on the road to Darband in the Unhar valley. It has some good irrigated land, and a large orchard immediately adjoining the village site. It is the summer head-quarters of the Khan of Amb, and the late Nawab Muhammad Akram Kham built himself here a large mansion, which is a conspicuous feature of the valley.

Sherwan.—A village, or rather a couple of villages almost adjoining each other, and known, the northern as Sherwan Kalan, and the southern as Sherwan Khurd, on a ridge some 5,000 feet high in the centre of Lower Tanawal, 17 miles west of Abbottabad. Population of Sherwan Kalan, 566; total area, 1,911 acres, including 396 acres cultivated, and land revenue assessment,

400 rupees. Population of Sherwan Khurd, 627; total area, 958 acres, including 254 acres cultivated, and land revenue assessment, 240 rupees. The proprietors are Tanaolis. There are two *lambardars* in Kalan, and one in Khurd. Hard by is a second-class police-station, and there is a primary school of fifty-one boys. On an eminence near the villages Major Abbott used to have a bungalow, where he spent the hot weather, and a few traces of it still remain. It was here that he withdrew when the Afghans advanced into Hazara.

Shinkiari.—A large village in the Pakhli plain, prettily situated 3,268 feet above sea-level on the left bank of the Siran, and not far from the entrances to the Konsh and Bhogarmang valleys. It is 11 miles to the north of Mansehra, with which it is connected by an unmetalled road in charge of the Military Works Department. There are a first-class police-station here, a civil rest-house, and a primary school of sixty-two boys. The population is 2,184, the total area 2,914 acres, including 1,077 acres under cultivation, and the land revenue assessment 2,100 rupees. The Swathi proprietors are heavily in debt to wealthy Hindus, who have got hold of much of the rich irrigated land. There are six *lambardars.*

Sirikot.—The chief village of the Mishwanis, situated in a basin at the top of the Gandgar range, some 12 miles west of Haripur. Population, 2,827; total area, 9,661 acres, of which 1,305 acres are cultivated, and land revenue assessment 1,350 rupees. There are four *lambardars.* The remains of a Sikh fort overlook the village, and here Major Abbott used occasionally to stay, surrounded by the loyal tribesmen. A large number of the villagers are in Government service, and their annual income from this source is estimated at over 30,000 rupees.

Sultanpur.—A village and small bazaar on the left bank of the Dor, and on the road from Abbottabad to Haripur, 11 miles from the former and 12 miles from the latter

place. Adjoining a serai is a camping-ground for troops on the march to and from Abbottabad. The population of the village is 685, its total area 1,077 acres, its cultivated area 713 acres, and its land revenue assessment 1,850 rupees. There is some valuable irrigated land, and the proprietors, who are chiefly Salar Jaduns, are well off. There are two *lambardars*.

Tarbela.—An important village situated on a flat bit of land at the junction of the Siran and the Indus, 12 miles north-west of Haripur. The name applies to the tract that is covered by one huge estate, and not to any single site. It means the 'black bela,' the land along the river having once been covered with a dense growth of shisham trees and brushwood, which were swept away in the flood of 1841. The estate comprises a number of hamlets, of which the chief, corresponding to the eleven *tarafs* of the village, are the following: Jattu, Tahli, Gojra, Lukmania, Char, Dheri, Gidarbandi, Murti, Maira, Tarpakki, and Tandula. The total population is 6,542, the total area 13,869 acres, including 3,710 acres under cultivation, and the land revenue assessment 8,000 rupees. The soil is rich; much of it is well watered from the Siran or irrigated by wells, and cultivation is of a high excellence, due to the pressure of the population on the soil. The proprietors are Utmanzais, and a few Gujars. There is a first-class police-station, a civil rest-house, which used to belong to the Salt Department, and a primary school, with sixty-three boys. In former days Tarbela was a famous fishing resort, *mahsir* of large size being caught where the Siran mingles its waters with the Indus; but the fishing has now greatly deteriorated, and good sport is seldom, if ever, obtained.

Thandiani.—A hill-station at the northern end of the Dunga Gali range, 16 miles to the north-east of Abbottabad, situated at an altitude of nearly 8,800 feet. There are a post office, a dak bungalow, a small church, and fifteen bungalows for European visitors, who are chiefly

residents of Abbottabad, or missionaries from the North-West Frontier Province and the Punjab. Of all the Hazara hill-stations Thandiani has the grandest and loveliest of views. To the east beyond the Kunhar are the snow-clad ranges of Kashmir; to the north and north-east the mountains of Kohistan, Bhogarmang, and Kagan, with the tip of Nanga Parbat's peak just appearing behind the last; more to the north-west are the snows of Swat and Chitral, and to the west the Black Mountain range and the hills of the Peshawar border. To the south-west one's eye is carried across the Abbottabad plain to Haripur and the distant Indus, and to the south are Miran Jani and the pine-clad slopes of the Galis. And no account of Thandiani would be complete without mention of *Hule ka Danna*, most beautiful of glades on a lower spur 1 mile to the north; or of Kalapani dak bungalow, 6 miles off on the road to Abbottabad, and prettily situated at the base of the hill by a cool mountain stream.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

LIST OF SOME OF THE MORE IMPORTANT OR INTERESTING TREES, SHRUBS, AND HERBS OF THE HAZARA DISTRICT.

NOTE.—The list below was compiled by Major-General Barrett, F.L.S., with the exception of the entries in brackets, which are additions suggested by Mr. Douie.

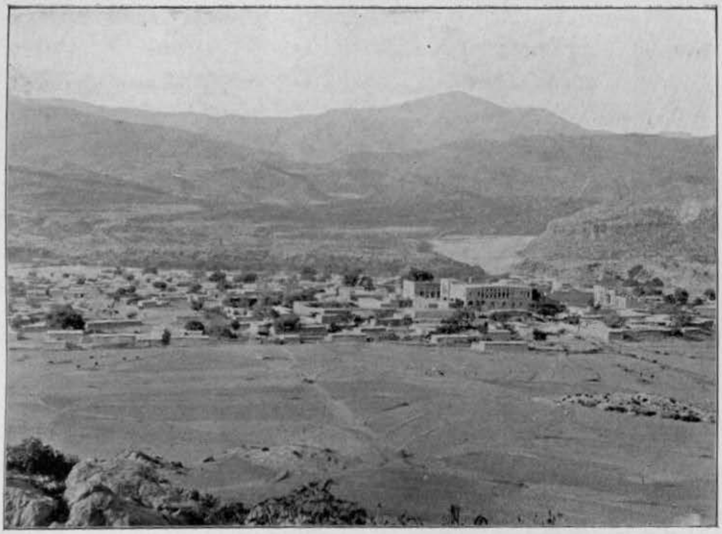
(*P*) following a vernacular name denotes that it is the *Pashtu* term. The rest of the names are *Hindki*.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
RANUNCULACEÆ (Buttercup family):						
Clematis montana, *Ham.*	—	Hadandi	Climbing shrub	White	Forests, 7,000-9,000 feet	Flowers in spring. Hardy in England, and sometimes grown in gardens as an ornamental climber.
Clematis Gouriana, *Roxb.*	—	Do.	Do.	Cream colour	Hedgerows, etc., 4,000-6,000 feet	Closely resembles the English wild clematis, or 'Traveller's Joy.' Flowers in August and September.
Clematis graveolens, *Lindl.*	—	Do.	Do.	Pale yellow	Open ground, 4,000-5,000 feet	A dwarf plant, flowering in the rainy season.
Clematis connata, *D. C.*	—	Do.	Do.	Do.	Hill-sides, among shrubs	The flowers are bell-shaped, appearing in August and September.
Anemone obtusiloba, *Don.*	—	Manira	Herb	White or mauve	Grassy slopes, 7,000-10,000 feet	Flowers in May and June. The white form is much the commoner.
Anemone rivularis, *Ham.*	—	Do.	Do.	White	7,000-9,000 feet	A larger, coarser plant. Flowers in clusters.
Thalictrum pedunculatum, *Edgew.*	Meadow-rue	—	Do.	Do.	In forest, 6,000-9,000 feet	Very graceful. Flowers in May. Leaves like those of maiden-hair fern.

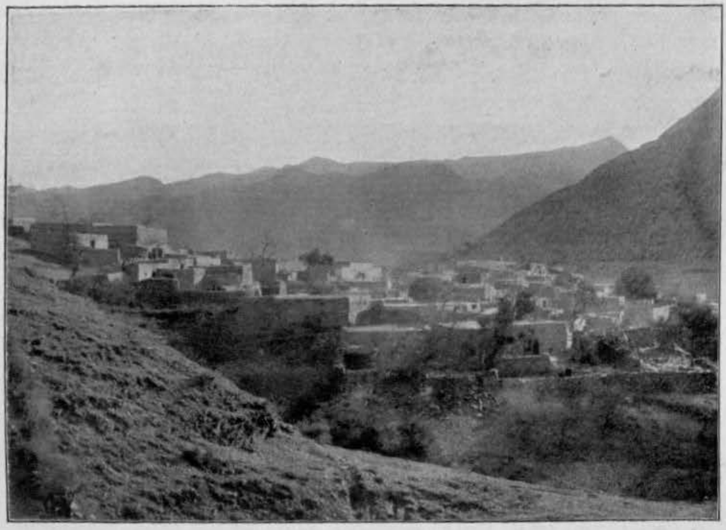
Ranunculus aquatilis, *Linn.*	Water buttercup	—	Do.	Do.	In streams and pools, 4,000-5,000 feet	The common English plant. Flowers in spring.
Ranunculus lætus, *Wall.*	Buttercup	Kind-bhirri	Do.	Yellow	Open ground, 4,000-6,000 feet	Closely resembles the English buttercup (*R. acris*), and is probably only a variety.
Ranunculus arvensis, *Linn.*	Buttercup	Do.	Do.	Do.	Field-weed, 4,000-6,000 feet	A troublesome weed in Hazara, as in England. Several other kinds of *ranunculus* are common in the District.
Caltha palustris, *Linn.* ..	Marsh marigold	Bapatra	Do.	White	Marshy ground, 7,000-10,000 feet	In Hazara and Kashmir the flowers are always white; otherwise it resembles the English plant. Flowers in spring.
Aquilegia vulgaris, *Linn.*	Columbine	Piu-mar	Do.	Yellow, purple, or white	Forest, 7,000-9,000 feet	The yellow variety blooms in spring, and the purple and the white (which is the largest and handsomest of the three) in summer. This plant is supposed to have the power to drive away fleas from a house —hence the vernacular name.
[Delphinium uncinatum	Larkspur	—	—	—	Gandgar hills, 2,500 feet	Two very handsome larkspurs, which may be *Delphinium alatum* and *Delphinium Cashmirianum*, are found near Gitidas.]
Aconitum heterophyllum, *Wall.*	Monk's-hood	Chita jara or patrisi	Herb	Pale mauve or grey	Hill-sides, 7,000-9,000 feet	This is not one of the poisonous aconites. A medicine for children is made from the roots. Other very poisonous aconites are found at high elevations.
[Aconitum Napellus ..	—	—	—	—	Between Gitidas and Babusar, 13,000-14,000 feet]	

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
RANUNCULACEÆ (*continued*):						
Actæa spicata, *Linn.* ..	Bane-berry	Sap-dakh	Herb	White	Forests, 7,000-9,000 feet	Flowers in spring.
Pæonia Emodi, *Wall.* ..	Peony	Mamekh	Do.	Do.	Do. (Thandiani, Black Mountain, Kagan valley, etc.)	Flowers in spring. The large white flowers are extremely handsome.
MENISPERMACEÆ (Moon-seed family):						
Cissampelos Pareira, *Linn.*	—	Ghora-sum	Climbing shrub	Green	On banks, 4,000 feet	Flowers in August. A common creeper, from which a diuretic medicine is made. The vernacular name refers to the shape of the leaves.
BERBERIDEÆ (Barberry family):						
Berberis Lycium, *Royle* ..	Barberry	Sumbul, kwerei (*P.*)	Shrub	Yellow	Hill-sides, 3,000-8,000 feet	Flowers in spring. Fruit purple; edible. One of the commonest shrubs throughout the District. Other kinds of barberry are found in the forests.
Podophyllum Emodi, *Wall.*	—	Ban-kakri, fir-fandu	Herb	White	Forests, 7,000-9,000 feet	The fruit is bright red. The medicine called 'podophyllin' is extracted from an American plant of this genus, and this has the same properties. About 40 maunds of it are sold in the year from the Reserved Forests.



KHANPUR.



SALAM KHAND.

PAPAVERACEÆ (Poppy family):						
Papaver dubium, *Linn.*	Poppy	—	Do.	Scarlet	Corn-fields, 4,000-7,000 feet	Flowers in spring; very nearly allied to the English wild poppy.
Papaver nudicaule, *Linn.*	Iceland poppy	—	Do.	Yellow	Hill-sides, 11,000-12,000 feet	Near Lulu Sar and the Babusar pass, at the head of the Kagan valley; flowers in September and October.
FUMARIACEÆ (Fumitory family):						
Corydalis rutæfolia, *Sibth.*	—	Chiri pavi	Do.	Purple	Open ground, 7,000-10,000 feet	Flowers in spring, after the snow has melted; a very delicate flower. The leaves are the shape of birds' feet; hence the vernacular name.
Fumaria parviflora, *Lamk.*	Fumitory	—	Do.	Do.	Field-weed, 4,000 feet	Flowers in spring; a very common weed.
CRUCIFERÆ:						
Nasturtium officinale, *Br.*	Water-cress	—	Do.	White	Running streams, 3,000-6,000 feet	Flowers in spring. This is pretty common throughout the District.
[Malcolmia strigosa ..	—	—	—	Bright purple	Plains and low hills]	
Erysimum altaicum, *C. A. Meyer*	—	—	Herb	Orange	Hill-sides, 7,000-9,000 feet	Resembles a wild wallflower; flowers in summer.
[Neslia paniculata ..	—	—	—	—	Tanawal and Nara hills, 4,000-6,000 feet]	
VIOLACEÆ (Violet family):						
Viola canina, V. sylvatica, *Fries.*	Dog-violet	Gul-naksha	Herb	Pale lilac or purple	Woods, etc., 4,000-9,000 feet	This and other species of violet are extremely common in the District. The yellow violet, which is commonest in Kagan, is the *Viola biflora.*

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1 *Botanical Name.*	2 *English Name.*	3 *Vernacular Name.*	4 *Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	5 *Colour of Flower.*	6 *Locality and Altitude.*	7 *Remarks.*
VIOLACEÆ (*continued*):						
Viola Patrinii, *D. C.* ..	—		—	Purple	4,000-8,000 feet	Similar to above, but leaves longer and narrower, and flowers with reddish tinge: sweet-scented.
POLYGALACEÆ:						
[Polygala Abyssinica ..	—	—	—	—	Low hills]	
CARYOPHYLLACEÆ (Pink family):						
Saponaria Vaccaria, *Linn.*	Soap-wort	—	Herb	Pink	Corn-fields, 4,000-5,000 feet	Flowers in spring.
Silene conoidea, *Linn.* ..	—	—	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.
Stellaria bulbosa, *Wulf.*	Star-wort	—	Do.	White	Shady places, 8,000-9,000 feet	A very graceful little plant; flowers in May. The roots have small tubers, about the size of a pea.
TAMARISCINEÆ (Tamarisk family):						
Myricaria Germanica, *Desv.*	—	Ghaz (*P.*)	Shrub	Purple	Sandy beds of streams, 7,000-8,000 feet	Flowers in summer.
HYPERICINEÆ (St. John's wort family):						
Hypericum cernuum, *Roxb.*	Rose of Sharon	—	Do.	Yellow	Wooded slopes, 4,000-7,000 feet	Flowers in spring.

MALVACEÆ (Mallow family):						
[Lavatera Cashmiriana..	—	—	—	—	Common in the Galis]	
[Hibiscus Trionum ..	—	—	—	—	Jaba (edge of Pakhli plain), 3,500 feet]	
[Hibiscus cancellatus ..	—	—	—	—	Above Jaba]	
Bombax Malabaricum, *D. C.*	Cotton-tree	Simal	Large tree	Red	Road-sides (planted), 3,000 feet	The large bright red flowers are very conspicuous, appearing before the leaves, and the tree grows to a good size about Haripur.
TILIACEÆ (Lime family):						
Grewia oppositifolia, *Roxb.*	—	Dhaman	Tree	Yellow	Woods, road-sides, and banks of fields, 3,000-4,000 feet	The wood when burnt has a very strong, disagreeable smell. The leaves are much valued as fodder.
LINACEÆ (Flax family):						
Reinwardtia trigyna, *Planch.*	Bush-flax	Zara-gulla (*P.*)	Small shrub	Do.	Shady banks, 3,000-5,000 feet	A very typical plant of the District; flowers profusely in early spring. The shrub is often browsed close to the ground. The flowers somewhat resemble primroses.
GERANIACEÆ (Crane's-bill family):						
Geranium Wallichianum, *D. C.*	Crane's-bill	Ratan-jot	Herb	Purple	Forests, 7,000-9,000 feet	This and other species of wild geranium are common in the upper forests.
Geranium ocellatum, *Camb.*	Do.	—	Do.	Majenta, with dark eye	Shady banks, 3,000-6,000 feet	Common in Hazara; flowers in spring; a very beautiful little plant.
Oxalis corniculata, *Linn.*	Sorrel	Kad-kurla	Do.	Yellow	Hill-sides, banks, etc., 2,000-7,000 feet	Extremely common everywhere; flowers in spring and summer. The juice of this plant is used for cleaning leather.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
GERANIACEÆ (*continued*):						
Impatiens Roylei, *Walp.*	Balsam	Ban-siria, ban-tel	Herb	Purple	Hill-sides, etc., 6,000-8,000 feet	Flowers in summer.
Impatiens scabrida, *D.C.*	Do.	Do.	Do.	Yellow	Do.	Do.
Impatiens brachycentra, *Kar.*	Do.	Do.	Do.	White	Do.	Flowers in summer (flowers very small). Several other kinds of balsam are also common.
RUTACEÆ (Orange and Rue family):						
Bœnninghausenia albiflora, *Reich.*	—	—	Do.	Do.	Forests, 4,000-8,000 feet	Flowers in summer. Leaves when bruised smell strongly of rue.
Zanthoxylum alatum, *Roxb.*	—	Timbar, timbal	Shrub	Yellow	Hill-sides, 3,000-6,000 feet	Small fruit, very pungent, used to flavour curries, etc. Flowers in spring; very common in Hazara.
Skimmia Laureola, *Hook. f.*	—	Ner, kaner	Do.	Do.	Forests, 6,000-10,000 feet	The berries are bright red, like those of holly. The leaves have a strong aromatic smell. Very common in the forests.
MELIACEÆ:						
Meli Azedarach, *Linn.*	Persian lilac	Drekh, bakhain	Tree	Lilac	Road-sides, etc., 2,000-5,000 feet	Flowers in spring. Commonly planted about villages, etc. The yellow berries remain during the winter; they are used as fodder for cattle.
Cedrela Toona, *Roxb.* ..	Bastard mahogany, or toon	Drawa, or drawi	Do.	Cream colour	Forests, 3,000-8,000 feet	Flowers in rainy season. The flowers have a strong, disagreeable smell.

Ilicineæ:						
Ilex dipyrena, *Wall.* ..	Holly	Garanda	Small tree	Pale yellow	Forests, 6,000-9,000 feet	The dull surface of the leaves, which are not wavy at the margin, distinguishes this from the European holly. It has the same bright red berry.
Celastrineæ:						
Euonymus fimbriatus, *Wall.*	Spindle-wood	Battal	Tree	Greenish-yellow	Forests, 7,000-9,000 feet	Margins of the leaves sharply toothed.
Euonymus pendulus, *Wall.*	Do.	Tulle	Do.	Do.	Do.	Evergreen leaves.
Euonymus Hamiltonianus, *Wall.*	Do.	Sikki	Do.	Do.	Forests, 4,000-8,000 feet	This resembles the English spindle-wood.
Gymnosporia Royleana, *Wall.*	—	Pataki	Shrub	Do.	Hill-sides, 3,000-5,000 feet	Very thorny, and much grazed by goats. A common shrub in all the dry, low hills.
Rhamneæ (Buckthorn family):						
Zizyphus Jujuba, *Lamk.*	Jujube	Ber	Small tree	Do.	Open ground, 2,000-4,000 feet	Fruit eaten.
Zizyphus vulgaris, *Lamk.*	—	Sinjli	Do.	Do.	Do.	Fruit eaten. Low branches very thorny; used for hedges. Upper branches free from thorns.
Zizyphus oxyphylla, *Edgew.*	—	Phitni	Shrub	Do.	Open ground, 2,000-6,000 feet	Fruit bright red, edible, though small and dry.
Rhamnus dahuricus, *Pall.*	Uckthorn	Tadar, satla paja	Shrub, or small tree	Do.	Forests, 4,000-7,000 feet	Common in forest undergrowth.
Rhamnus triqueter, *Wall.*	Do.	Jalidhar	Do.	Do.	Dry hills, 3,000-4,000 feet	Flowers in summer.
Sageretia Brandrethiana, *Aitchison*	—	Kukura, ganger, mamanei (*P.*)	Low shrub	Do.	Dry hills, 2,000-4,000 feet	Scrambling thorny shrub, with edible small black fruit. Very common on low hills.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
AMPELIDEÆ (Vine family):						
Vitis lanata, *Roxb.* ..	Wild vine	Jangli dakh	Climbing shrub	Green	Ravines, etc., 2,000-5,000 feet	Large broad leaves, rusty-red below; fruit edible, but small.
Vitis Himalayana, *Brandis.*	—	Dakh	Do.	Do.	Forests, 6,000-9,000 feet	Resembles Virginia creeper, but leaves have only three leaflets. Very beautiful in autumn, when they turn red; fruit small.
SAPINDACEÆ (Horse-chestnut and Maple family):						
Æsculus Indica, *Coleb.* ..	Horse-chestnut	Bankhor	Large tree	Cream colour	Do.	Resembles the European horse-chestnut, but flowers later, and the fruit is larger and darker, without spines on the husk.
Acer cæsium, *Wall.* ..	Sycamore, or maple	Tarkan or trikan, kilu	Do.	Pale yellow	Do.	Very common in all upper forests. Flowers in early spring.
Acer pictum, *Thunb.* ..	Maple	Nikki tarkan	Do.	Do.	Do.	A rather smaller tree, with smoother leaves.
Acer pentapomicum, *J. L. S.*	Do.	Tarkanna	Small tree	Do.	Forests, 6,000-7,000 feet	Only seen in Kagan, about Malkandi, etc.
Dodonæa viscosa, *Linn.*	—	Sanatha, or bansatra	Shrub	Do.	Dry hills, 2,000-4,000 feet	Very common in Lower Hazara. Wood much used for fuel.
Staphylea Emodi, *Wall.*	Snake stick	Chitra, mar-chob (*P.*)	Do.	White	Forests, 6,000-8,000 feet	Much used for walking-sticks. This is nearly allied to the American bladder-nut grown in English shrubberies.

ANACARDIACEÆ (Mango and Sumach family):						
Rhus Cotinus, *Linn.* ...	Venetian sumach	Bhan	Shrub	Pale yellow	Hill-sides, 3,000-6,000 feet	Very common; flowers in spring. Twigs used for making baskets.
Rhus semialata, *Murray*	Sumach	Tetar	Small tree	Cream colour	Ravines, etc., 4,000-5,000 feet	Very beautiful in autumn, when the long feathery foliage turns red.
Pistacia integerrima, *Stewart*	—	Kangar	Large tree	Red-brown	Hill-sides, etc., 3,000-6,000 feet	A very characteristic tree of the Hazara District, constantly planted about shrines. Allied to the pistachio nut (*Pistacia vera*), but the fruit of this is small and worthless.
CORIARIÆ:						
Coriaria Nepalensis, *Wall.*	—	Balel	Shrub	Pale yellow	Rocky slopes, 6,000-8,000 feet	Not common.
LEGUMINOSÆ (Pea and Bean family):						
[Crotalaria Mysorensis, *Roth.*	—	—	—	—	Between Mansehra and Garhi Habibullah Khan]	
[Crotalaria sessiliflora, *Linn.*	—	—	—	—	Garhi Habibullah Khan]	
[Crotalaria medicaginea, *Lam.*	—	—	—	—	Jaba]	
Trifolium repens, *Linn.*	White clover	—	Herb	White	Meadows, etc., 3,000-9,000 feet	Very common throughout Hazara. The Afghan clover, called 'shotal,' or 'shaftal' (*T. resupinatum*, Linn.), is commonly cultivated. Red clover is also found at higher elevations.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
LEGUMINOSÆ (*continued*):						
Lotus corniculatus, *Linn.*	Butter and eggs	Makri	Herb	Yellow	Meadows, etc., 3,000-9,000 feet	Very common throughout Hazara, as in England.
Indigofera Gerardiana, *Wall.* (var. heterantha)	Wild indigo	Kenthi	Shrub	Purple	Open hill-sides, 3,000-8,000 feet	Very common everywhere. Twigs used for binding corn-sheaves, etc.
Indigofera pulchella, *Roxb.*	Do.	Dag-kenthi	Do.	Do.	Do.	Flowers before the leaves come out; very handsome.
[Caragana brevispina, *Royle.*	—	—	—	—	Mahandri, Kagan valley, 5,000 feet]	
[Astragalus polyacanthus	—	Chitti-bin	—	—	Nara hills]	
[Astragalus pyrrhotrichus	—	—	—	—	Tanawal hills]	
[Astragalus graveolens ..	—	—	—	—	Do.]	
Desmodium tiliæfolium, *G. Don.*	—	Chamra, chamkat	Shrub	Pale lilac or white	Hill-sides, 4,000-8,000 feet	Flowers in August and September; handsome.
Vigna vexillata, *Benth...*	—	—	Creeping herb	Purple	Grassy slopes, 3,000-5,000 feet	Flowers, large and handsome, like those of sweet-pea, in August.
[Atylosia platycarpa, *Benth.*	—	—	—	—	Brigade Circular hill]	
[Rhynchosia pseudo-cajan, *Camb.*	—	—	—	—	Kunhar valley]	
[Rhynchosia minima, *D.C.*	—	—	—	—	Do.]	
[Rhynchosia Himalensis, *Benth.*	—	—	—	—	Brigade Circular hill]	

Dalbergia Sissoo, *Roxb.*	—	Thali, or shisham	Tree	Yellow	2,000-4,000 feet	Generally planted along road-sides. Flowers in May.
Sophora mollis, *Grah.* ..	—	—	Shrub	Do.	Banks, etc., 2,000-5,000 feet	Flowers in April before the leaves are out, somewhat like laburnum.
Cæsalpinia Sepiaria, *Roxb.*	—	Urni	Do.	Do.	Hedgerows, 4,000-5,000 feet	Very prickly, scrambling shrub; makes a good hedge. Flowers in spring, large and very handsome.
[Cassia mimosoides, *Linn.*	—	—	—	—	Tanawal hills]	
Acacia modesta, *Wall.* ..	—	Phula or phulai	Small tree	Pale yellow	Dry hills, 2,000-5,000 feet	Very common in all the lower and drier parts of Hazara. Wood very hard; used for ploughshares, etc.
ROSACEÆ (Rose family):						
Prunus padus, *Linn.* ..	Bird-cherry	Kala-kat, barrat (*P.*)	Tree	White	Forests, 6,000-9,000 feet	One of the commonest trees of the upper forests. Fruit small, black, edible. Leaves often spotted by an orange-coloured fungus.
Prinsepia utilis, *Royle* ..	—	Phulwara	Shrub	Do.	Hedges, etc., 4,000-5,000 feet	A scrambling shrub, very thorny, and makes a good hedge. Fruit like a small plum; edible.
Spiræa vaccinifolia, *Don.*	—	Kurkan	Do.	Do.	Hill-sides, etc., 3,000-6,000 feet	Common in Hazara. Flowers in summer.
Spiræa vestita	—	—	—	—	Kagan, 6,500 feet	Closely allied to meadow-sweet.
Spiræa sorbifolia, *Linn.*	—	Amrer, Karli	Shrub	White	Stony ground, 4,000-7,000 feet	Very handsome feathery foliage, and large head of flowers appearing in May.
Rubus fruticosus, *Linn.*	Bramble	Kanachi	Do.	Pink	Banks, 2,000-7,000 feet	Resembles English blackberry; edible.
Rubus ellipticus, *Smith*	Do.	Garacha	Do.	White	3,000-6,000 feet	Fruit yellow, like small raspberry. A large bramble, very prickly.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
ROSACEÆ (*continued*):						
Rubus lasiocarpus, *Smith*	Bramble	Bhukaran	Shrub	Pink	3,000-8,000 feet	Fruit edible, like blackberry, with whitish bloom on it. Other brambles are also found in the forests.
Fragaria vesca, *Linn.* ..	Wild straw-berry	Mandakha, or khan march	Herb	White	6,000-9,000 feet	Very common in all the higher forests.
Fragaria Indica, *Andr.* ..	—	—	Do.	Yellow	3,000-7,000 feet	The fruit is very bright red, resembling that of the edible strawberry, but is tasteless, and said to be poisonous.
Potentilla Nepalensis, *Hook.*	—	Ratta gulācha	Do.	Red	5,000-9,000 feet	The blood-red flowers are very handsome. One of the commonest hill-flowers in summer.
Rosa moschata, *Mill.* ..	Musk-rose	Jhal, kuruch (*P.*)	Shrub	White	4,000-8,000 feet	The common wild rose of the hill-tracts, sometimes scrambling over high trees; flowers in May.
Rosa macrophylla, *Lindl.*	Wild rose	Shingari	Do.	Pink	7,000-10,000 feet	The pink briar of the upper forests.
Pyrus Pashia, *Ham.* ..	Wild pear	Batangi	Tree	White	2,000-6,000 feet	The fruit is small and brownish in colour, very hard until over-ripe, when it is edible, like that of the medlar. Extremely common all about Hazara.

Pyrus lanata, *Don.* ..	Do.	Doda	Do.	Do.	7,000-10,000 feet	Fruit like that of crab-apple, reddish when ripe; scarcely edible, except by bears, etc.
Cratægus oxyacantha, *Linn.*	Hawthorn	Bat sangli	Small tree	Do.	4,000-7,000 feet	Common in Western Hazara from Agror to Chattar, and also in Kagan; scarce elsewhere.
Cotoneaster bacillaris, *Wall.*	—	Luni	Do.	Do.	6,000-9,000 feet	Common in upper forests; much used for walking-sticks.
SAXIFRAGACEÆ:						
Saxifraga ligulata, *Wall.*	—	Bat-bewa, barbēya	Herb	Pink	Rocks, 7,000-10,000 feet	Very common in all the upper hills; leaves very large, broad, and shiny; flowers in early spring.
Deutzia Staminea, *Br.* ..	—	Phut	Shrub	White	4,000-6,000 feet	Flowers in spring; a handsome shrub.
Ribes rubrum, *Linn.* ..	Wild red currant	Gwal-dakh	Do.	Green	7,000-8,000 feet	Wild currants are fairly common in Kagan.
Ribes orientale, *Poiret.*	Do.	Kag-dakh	Do.	Do.	Do.	Flowers in June.
CRASSULACEÆ:						
[Sedum Ewersii, *Ledeb.*..	—	—	—	—	Near Naran, 7,800 feet	A beautiful plant.]
HAMAMELIDEÆ (Wych-hazel family):						
Parrottia Jacquemontiana, *Dcne.*	—	Peshor	Large shrub	White	Forests, 6,000-9,000 feet	Flowers in spring. The leaf and also the fruit are rather like those of the hazel-nut.
LYTHRACEÆ (Loose-strife family):						
Woodfordia floribunda, *Saliob.*	Wych-hazel	Dhawi	Shrub	Red	Hill-sides, 2,000-5,000 feet	Very common on dry ground in low hills. Flowers in spring. A red dye is made from the flowers.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
LYTHRACEÆ (*continued*):						
Punica Granatum, *Linn.*	Pomegranate	Daruni	Shrub	Red	Hill-sides, 2,000-5,000 feet	Very common, and seems truly wild. The fruit is very dry, and scarcely worth eating, but is sold to druggists for medicinal purposes.
ONAGRACEÆ (Willow-herb family):						
Œnothera rosea ..	—	—	Herb	Pink	Waste ground, etc., 4,000-8,000 feet	One of the commonest weeds throughout the District, although not indigenous. Flowers throughout summer.
UMBELLIFERÆ (Hemlock family):						
Eryngium Billardieri, *Delaroche.*	Sea-holly	—	Do.	Blue	Do. 4,000-6,000 feet	A very common weed, resembling a thistle, but foliage and flowers bluish. Flowers in summer.
Bupleurum falcatum, *Linn.*	—	—	Do.	Yellow	Hill-sides, etc., 3,000-9,000 feet	Flowers in summer; very common.
Ferula Jæschkeana, *Vatke*	—	Kendal	Do.	Do.	Waste ground, 6,000-10,000 feet	A large coarse weed, nearly allied to the plant which produces asafœtida.
ARALIACEÆ:						
Hedera Helix, *Linn.* ..	Ivy	Alabambal, palul (*P.*)	Climbing shrub	Green	Forests, 4,000-9,000 feet	The common European ivy. In Hazara the fruit is always bright orange.

CORNACEÆ (Cornel family):						
Marlea begoniæfolia, *Roxb.*	—	—	Small tree	White	Forests, 2,000-6,000 feet	Flowers in May and June. The leaves are large and broad, like those of sycamore.
Cornus macrophylla, *Wall.*	Cornel	Kandar, or kandal	Tree	Pale yellow	Forests, 4,000-8,000 feet	A common tree flowering in May.
CAPRIFOLIACEÆ (Honey-suckle family):						
Sambucus Ebulus, *Linn.*	Elder	Kanula	Herb	White	Open ground, 6,000-10,000 feet	Similar to the European elder, but herbaceous, and fruit bright scarlet; common in Kagan.
Viburnum cotinifolium, *Don.*	Wayfaring tree	Ban-guch, rich-uklú	Shrub	Do.	Hill-sides and forests, 3,000-9,000 feet	Flowers in summer; common.
Viburnum fœtens, *Dcne.*	—	Guch, or uklu	Do.	Pink	Forests, 6,000-10,000 feet	One of the commonest forest under-shrubs. Flowers in early spring, before the leaves are out; sweet scented. The fruit is eaten.
Lonicera quinquelocularis, *Hardwick*	Bush honey-suckle	Phut, hadei (*P.*)	Do.	Pale yellow	Forests, etc., 4,000-8,000 feet	A very common shrub in all parts of the District.
RUBIACEÆ (Madder family):						
Randia tetrasperma, *Roxb.*	—	Gangeri, kikra	Do.	Cream colour	Open hill-sides, 3,000-6,000 feet	A low thorny shrub; flowers in summer.
Hamiltonia suaveolens, *Roxb.*	—	Ghetra	Do.	Lilac	Open hill-sides, 3,000-5,000 feet	Flowers in autumn. The large panicles are sweet-scented and rather handsome.
Leptodermis virgata, *Edgew.*	—	Jalai	Do.	Pale pink or lilac	Open hill-sides, 4,000-5,000 feet	A small wiry bush, flowering in August.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
VALERIANEÆ (Valerian family):						
Valeriana Wallichii, *D.C.*	Valerian	Mushk bala	Herb	White	Forests, etc., 4,000-9,000 feet	Flowers in early spring. Very common in the forest tracts. Other species of valerian are also to be met with.
DIPSACEÆ (Teazle family):						
Morina Persica, *Linn.* ..	—	—	Do.	White or pink	Open hill-sides, 4,000-8,000 feet	Leaves are prickly, and the plant resembles a thistle. Flowers large and handsome, appearing in spring.
Dipsacus inermis, *Wall.*	—	—	Do.	White or cream	Forests, 7,000-10,000 feet	Flowers globular, appearing in summer; very common in forests.
[Scabiosa Speciosa ..	—	—	—	—	Kagan valley, 9,000-13,000 feet	Very handsome.]
COMPOSITÆ:						
[Erigeron multiradiatus, *Benth.*	—	—	—	—	Above Gitidas]	
[Laggera alata, *Shultz-Bip.*	—	—	—	—	Kagan, 6,500 feet]	
Leontopodium alpinum, *Cass.*	Edelweiss	—	Herb	White	Open hill-sides, 8,000-11,000 feet	The European plant, but the flowers are not so fine or pure in colour, except at very high altitudes.
[Anaphalis nubigena, *D.C.*	—	—	—	—	Burawai, 10,000 feet]	

[Anaphalis adnata, *D.C.*	—	—	—	—	Balakot, 4.000 feet]	
Inula Cappa, *D.C.* ..	—	Kamori	Shrub	Yellow	Open ground, 4,000-5,000 feet	Flowers in autumn; common in low hills.
[Achillea milleofolium ..	—	—	—	—	Mahandri to Gitidas]	
Senecio chrysanthemoides, *D.C.*	Ragwort	Chitta-ulla	Herb	Yellow	Open ground, 7,000-10,000 feet	Flowers in summer and autumn, very common weed of upland meadows.
[Carduus mitans, *Linn.*..	—	—	—	—	Kagan valley, 5,000 feet]	
Cnicus argyracanthus, *D.C.*	Thistle	Kandiēri	Herb	Straw yellow	Waste ground, 4,000-9,000 feet	Very common, tall-growing thistle.
[Lilybum Marianium ..	—	—	—	—	plains of Haripur and Tanawal hills]	
[Carthanus oxyacanthia	—	Papoti	—	—	Do.]	
Saussurea candicans, *Clarke*	—	Gajarmula	Herb	Purple	Open ground, 3,000-6,000 feet	Common on dry hills; the root is edible.
Ainsliæa aptera, *D.C.* ..	—	Lahar	Do.	White	Forests, 6,000-9,000 feet	The flowers appear in early spring, like small white stars, on the long slender dry stalk of the previous year's growth.
Gerbera lanuginosa, *Benth.*	Do.	Kho	Do.	Pale lilac	Rock, etc., 5,000-8,000 feet	The white cotton is peeled from the under sides of the leaves, and used as tinder.
Cichorium Intybus, *Linn.*	Chicory	Hand	Do.	Blue	4,000-9,000 feet	The European plant. Leaves and root cooked and eaten. Very common throughout Hazara. Flowers in summer.
Lactuca Scariola, *Linn.*	Wild lettuce	—	Do.	Yellow	Waste ground, 4,000-9,000 feet	Supposed to be the wild form of the garden lettuce. A very tall, slender plant. Flowers in autumn.
Prenanthes Brunoniana, *Wall.*	—	—	Do.	White	Forests, 5,000-9,000 feet	One of the commonest forest plants. Flowers in autumn.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1 *Botanical Name.*	2 *English Name.*	3 *Vernacular Name.*	4 *Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	5 *Colour of Flower.*	6 *Locality and Altitude.*	7 *Remarks.*
CAMPANULACEÆ (Harebell family):						
Campanula latifolia, *Linn.*	Giant campanula	—	Herb	Dark blue	Forests, 8,000-11,000 feet	Common in the Galis. Found also in Scotland and the North of England.
ERICACEÆ (Heather family):						
Pieris ovalifolia, *D. Don.*	—	Ratan-kat	Small tree	White	Forests, 4,000-6,000 feet	Found in the Bhogarmang valley, and on the Kathai pass in Agror. The flowers resemble those of the lily of the valley. Very common at Simla.
Rhododendron arboreum, *Smith*	—	Ram tul	Tree	Red	Do.	In the same localities as the above. Flowers in April. This also is common in Simla, but very local in Hazara.
PLUMBAGINEÆ (Plumbago family):						
Statice Cabulica, *Boiss* ..	Sea-lavender	Azardaru	Herb	Pale pink	Hill-sides, 3,000-5,000 feet	Resembles a stonecrop. Flowers in spring and summer, on a long, slender stalk.
PRIMULACEÆ (Primrose family):						
Primula denticulata, *Smith*	Snow cabbage	Ulli	Do.	Mauve	Open ground, 7,000-10,000 feet	Habit like a cowslip, but flowers in a dense ball. Very common. Flowers soon after the snow has melted.
Androsace rotundifolia, *Hardwicke*	—	—	Do.	Pink	Open ground, 5,000-10,000 feet	Flowers in spring. Very common throughout the District.

MYRSINACEÆ:						
Myrsine Africana, *Linn.*	—	Kukhan; the fruit is called wawrang	Shrub	Pale yellow	Dry banks, 3,000-7,000 feet	Very common throughout the District, resembling myrtle. The small dark blue berries are eaten as a remedy for rheumatism.
EBENACEÆ (Ebony family):						
Diospyros lotus, *Linn.* ..	—	Amlok	Tree	Yellow	Forests and open ground, 3,000-6,000 feet	Fruit edible; size of a grape. The persimmon, cultivated in Southern Europe, belongs to this genus.
OLEACEÆ:						
Jasminum humile, *Linn.*	Jasmine	Chamba	Shrub	Do.	Forests, 3,000-5,000 feet	Flowers in May and June. Very common.
Fraxinus excelsior, *Linn.*	Ash	Sum	Tree	Greenish yellow	Forests, etc., 4,000-8,000 feet	The English ash. Common in Kagan, but getting scarce in other parts of the District, as the wood is in demand.
Fraxinus xanthoxiloides, *Wall.*	Dwarf ash	Hanuch, or arunch	Small tree	Do.	4,000-8,000 feet	Very common in Kagan.
Olea cuspidata, *Wall.* ..	Wild olive	Kao	Tree or shrub	White	Dry hills, 3,000-6,000 feet	Flowers in June, but does not generally fruit in Hazara. The wood is used for making ploughs and the beads of rosaries.
APONCYNACEÆ (Dogbane family):						
Carissa spinarum, *A.D.C.*	—	Garanda	Shrub	White or pale pink	Dry hills, 3,000-4,000 feet	Common in the low, dry hills. Flowers in spring.
Nerium odorum, *Soland.*	Oleander	Ganer	Do.	Pink	Sandy beds of streams, 3,000-6,000 feet	Flowers in autumn; sweet-scented; nearly related to the European oleander.
ASCLEPIADEÆ:						
Periploca aphylla, *Dcne.*	—	Bātla	Do.	Brownish purple	Dry hills, 3,000-5,000 feet	A leafless bush; flowers in rainy season.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
LOGANIACEÆ :						
Buddleia paniculata, *Wall.*	—	Chitti bui, or barutas (*P.*)	Shrub	Pink or mauve	4,000-7,000 feet	Flowers in spring. Another species with white flowers (*B. Asiatica*) is also met with.
GENTIANACEÆ (Gentian family) :						
Gentiana Kurroo, *Royle*	Gentian	—	Herb	Blue	Dry, rocky banks, 4,000-8,000 feet	Flowers in September. Very common throughout Hazara, and very handsome.
Gentiana capitata, *Ham.*	Do.	—	Do.	Do.	3,000-8,000 feet	A minute plant ; flowers in spring ; extremely common in the District.
Swertia alata, *Royle* ..	—	—	Do.	Pale yellow	Damp places, 4,000-6,000 feet	This and other species of swertia are very common in Hazara, ascending to high altitudes. An allied species produces chiretta, from which a tonic is made. (A beautiful large purple flowered plant of this order, which grows in the Kagan valley at a height of 11,000 feet, is probably *Swertia cœrulea.*)
BORAGINACEÆ (Borage family) :						
Ehretia acuminata, *Br.*	—	Ponran (puna), shawahi (*P.*)	Tree	Do.	3,000-5,000 feet	Flowers in May. The small pink berries are eaten.

Trichodesma Indicum, *Br.*	—	Handauli	Herb	Blue	Dry hills, 3,000-5,000 feet	Flowers in July.
Cynoglossum denticulatum, *A.D.C.*	Hounds' tongue	Lenda	Do.	Do.	Meadows, 3,000-8,000 feet	Very common; flowers in summer, resembling forget-me-not. The fruit is a burr, which sticks to the clothes.
CONVOLVULACEÆ (Bindweed family):						
Ipomœa hederacea, *Jacq.*	—	—	Climber	Do.	Maize-fields, 4,000-6,000 feet	Flowers in August; sky-blue; very handsome.
[Ipomœa pes-tigridis ..	—	—	—	—	Balakot]	
Convolvulus arvensis, *Linn.*	Bindweed	—	Climber	Pink	Field weed	Flowers in spring and summer. Very common here, as in England.
Cuscuta reflexa, *Roxb.* ..	Dodder	Nila-dhari, or akas-bel	Do.	White	On bushes, 3,000-6,000 feet	A destructive parasite. Very common.
SOLANACEÆ (Nightshade family):						
Solanum xanthocarpum, *Schrad.*	Mahokri	—	Herb	Blue	Hill-sides, 3,000-6,000 feet	Flowers in summer. A prickly herb; very common.
Atropa Belladonna, *Linn.*	Deadly nightshade	—	Coarse herb	Yellow	Forests, 6,000-10,000 feet	Very poisonous, with black shining berries.
[Hyoscyamus niger, *Linn.*	Henbane	—	—	—	Kagan valley, 8,500 feet]	
SCROPHULARIACEÆ:						
Verbascum Thapsus, *Linn.*	Mullein	Gidar-tamako	Herb	Yellow	Dry hills, 3,000-8,000 feet	A very common weed. The large, broad, downy leaves resemble those of the tobacco-plant; hence the vernacular name, 'jackal's or wild tobacco.' Flowers in summer.
[Antirrhinum orontium, *Linn.*	Snap-dragon	—	—	—	Common in low hills]	

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
SCROPHULARIACEÆ (*continued*):						
[Mimulus gracilis, *R. Br.*	—	—	—	—	Above Bhogarmang]	
[Torenia cordifolia, *Roxb.*	—	—	—	—	Bhogarmang valley, 3,500 feet]	
[Vandellia crustacea, *Benth.*	—	—	—	—	Do.]	
Wulfenia Amherstiana, *Benth.*	—	Sap-jara	Herb	Dark purple blue	Damp rocky banks, 8,000-11,000 feet	A very beautiful little rock-plant; flowers in summer; named after Lady Amherst.
Veronica agrestis, *Linn.*	Speedwell	—	Do.	Blue	Field weed, 4,000-6,000 feet	This and other species of veronica are common field and garden weeds in Hazara, as in England.
[Pedicularis megalantha, *Don.*	—	—	—	—	Kagan valley, 5,500-11,000 feet]	
[Pedicularis tenuirostris	—	—	—	—	Kagan]	
BIGNONIACEÆ:						
Amphicome Emodi, *Lindl.*	—	Kor	Herb	Pink	Rocky banks, 4,000-6-000 feet	One of the most beautiful wild-flowers of Hazara; often cultivated in gardens. Large clusters of pink flowers, appearing in summer.
[Tecoma (or Tecomella) undulata	—	—	—	—	Gandgar hills, 1,500 feet	A very beautiful flower.]

ACANTHACEÆ:						
Strobilanthes glutinosus, *Nees.*	—	Ban-naksha	Straggly shrub	Mauve	Ravines, 4,000-6,000 feet	Flowers large and handsome, in early spring.
Strobilanthes alatus, *Nees.*	—	—	Herb	Dark blue	Forests, 6,000-10,000 feet	This and other species of strobilanthes are very common in forests, where they cover large tracts; flowers in summer and autumn.
[Barleria cristata, *Linn.*	—	—	—	—	Near Abbottabad]	
Adhatoda vasica, *Nees.* ..	—	Bhekar	Shrub	White	Dry hills, 3,000-7,000 feet	A very common characteristic shrub of the lower dry hills; flowers throughout the year. Goats do not eat this, hence its prevalence.
VERBENACEÆ (Verbena family):						
Verbena officinalis, *Linn.*	Vervein	Kashwank	Herb	Pale mauve	Open hill-sides, 3,000-8,000 feet	Very common; flowers in summer.
Vitex Negundo, *Linn.* ..	Chaste-tree	Marwan	Shrub	Dark blue	Stony ground, 3,000-6,000 feet	Flowers in August.
Caryopteris Wallichiana, *Schauer*	—	Nikki kurkan	Do.	Mauve	Forests, 4,000-6,000 feet	Flowers in spring.
LABIATÆ:						
Plectranthus rugosus, *Wall.*	—	Bui, barutas (*P.*)	Small shrub	Pale mauve	Open hill-sides, 3,000-7,000 feet	Very common on dry hills, in company with wormwood. A favourite cover for chikor.
Micromeria biflora, *Benth.*	—	—	Small herb	Pale mauve or pink	Dry ground, 3,000-6,000 feet	A characteristic plant of the District. In flower almost throughout the year.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1 *Botanical Name.*	2 *English Name.*	3 *Vernacular Name.*	4 *Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	5 *Colour of Flower.*	6 *Locality and Altitude.*	7 *Remarks.*
LABIATÆ (*continued*):						
Salvia lanata, *Roxb.* ..	—	Falajiri	Herb	Mauve	Dry ground, 3,000-6,000 feet	Very common on waste land, with broad, flat, downy leaves, and handsome flowers on a tall stem, appearing in spring.
[Salvia Moorcroftiana ..	—	Gadhikan	—	—	—	Common.]
Nepeta raphanorhiza, *Benth.*	—	—	Herb	Mauve	Dry ground, 4,000-8,000 feet	The small, tuberous roots are eaten. Many other species of nepeta are common in the upper hills, generally with conspicuous blue flowers.
[Scutellaria linearis, *Benth.*	—	—	—	—	Kawai, Kagan valley]	
Otostegia limbata, *Benth.*	—	Chitti bui	Small shrub	Orange	Dry ground, 3,000-6,000 feet	A small thorny shrub; flowers in May.
Phlomis spectabilis ..	—	—	—	—	Brigade Circular hill	Very showy.
[Teucrium Royleanum, *Wall.*	—	—	—	—	Kagan valley, 5,000 feet]	
[Ajuga bracteosa ..	—	—	—	—	Abbottabad]	
NYCTAGINEÆ:						
Bœrhaavia repens, *Linn.*	—	—	Herb	Red-purple	Dry ground, 3,000-6,000 feet	Flowers in August.
CHENOPODIACEÆ:						
[Chenopodium Blitum ..	—	Sundar	—	—	Kagan valley, 8,000-9,000 feet]	

PHYTOLACCACEÆ:						
Phytolacca acinosa, *Roxb.*	—	—	Coarse herb	Yellowish green	Forests, 6,000-9,000 feet	The leaves are cooked and eaten as a vegetable. It is scarce in Hazara, but more common in the Eastern Himalayas, where it is known as '*jiringi.*' The Goorkhas of the Abbottabad garrison sometimes mistake the deadly nightshade for this plant, and eat the former, with disastrous results.
POLYGONACEÆ (Buckwheat family):						
Polygonum hydropiper, *Linn.*	Water pepper	Pun-panak, or ratti-mirchi	Herb	White or pink	Marshy ground, 3,000-5,000 feet	Flowers in autumn. Many other species of Polygonum are common in the District.
Rumex hastatus, *Don.*	Dock	Khatimbal	Do.	Greenish yellow	Dry banks, 3,000-7,000 feet	One of the commonest plants in Hazara. The brownish-red fruits are very conspicuous. Several other species of dock are also common, known by the general name of *Hula.*
[Rheum spiciforme ..	Rhubarb	—	—	—	Near Gitidas]	
LAURINEÆ (Laurel family):						
Machilus Duthiei, *King*	—	Chan, kalban (*P.*)	Tree	Greenish white	Forests, 6,000-7,000 feet	A handsome evergreen tree, found only in deep shady ravines near water.
THYMELÆACEÆ:						
Daphne oleoides, *Schreb.*	—	Kuttelal	Shrub	Creamy white	Dry ground, 3,000-7,000 feet	Very common about graveyards, etc. Flowers in April.
ELÆAGNACEÆ:						
Elæagnus umbellata, *M. Bieb.*	Oleaster	Kankoli, ghanam-ranga (*P.*)	Small tree	Do.	Ravines, 4,000-6,000 feet	The fruit is the colour of ripe wheat, hence the vernacular name. It is dry and fibrous, but is eaten. Common in Chitral and Kurram valleys, but scarce in Hazara.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
LORANTHACEÆ :						
Viscum album, *Linn.* ..	Mistletoe	Arbambal	Parasitical shrub	Green	On trees, 4,000-8,000 feet	Flowers in spring. Common on apple-trees, also on chestnuts and other trees in the upper forests.
[Viscum Japonicum, *Thumb.*	—	—	—	—	Balimang, head of Konsh valley	A parasite.]
EUPHORBIACEÆ (Spurge family) :						
Euphorbia pilosa, *Linn.*	Sun-spurge	Dodal, or dudh-bhatal	Herb	Yellow	Field weed, 3,000-6,000 feet	One of the commonest weeds throughout the District, as in England. Many other kinds of spurge are also common.
Euphorbia helioscopia, *Linn.*	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.	Do.
Sarcococca pruniformis, *Lindl.*	—	Shila, or bansatra	Shrub	Cream colour	Damp hill-sides, etc., 4,000-9,000 feet	A small shrub ; very common in damp, shady places. Flowers and fruits at all seasons.
Buxus semper virens, *Linn.*	Box	Samsad	Do.	Do.	Dry banks, 3,000-7,000 feet	Identical with the European box, but the longer, narrower leaves give it a very different appearance. Flowers in spring.
Andrachne cordifolia, *Muell.*	—	Kurkan	Do.	Greenish yellow	Shady ravines, 4,000-9,000 feet	A shrub with slender branches, common throughout the District. Flowers in summer.

Mallotus Philippinensis, *Muell.*	—	Kamila	Shrub or small tree	Greenish yellow	Dry hills, 3,000-6,000 feet	Common in the District. The fruit is covered with red powder, from which the well-known dye is made.
Sapium sebiferum, *Roxb.*	Tallow tree	—	Tree	Do.	Roadsides, planted, 4,000-5,000 feet	A native of China. Introduced, and has taken very kindly to the climate and surroundings. The leaves turn a lovely red colour in autumn.
URTICACEÆ (Nettle family):						
Ulmus Wallichiana, *Planch.*	Himalayan elm	Kain	Large tree	Do.	Forests, 6,000-9,000 feet	One of the largest forest trees. Flowers in spring before the leaves are out.
Ulmus villosa, *Brandis* ..	Small-leaved elm	Mannu	Do.	Do.	Open ground, 4,000-7,000 feet	A very large tree, resembling the English elm. Flowers in spring.
Celtis Australis, *Linn.* ..	Nettle-tree	Batkarar	Tree	Do.	Open ground and forests, 4,000-8,000 feet	One of the best-known trees in the District. Often planted near shrines.
Cannabis sativa, *Linn.* ..	Hemp	Bhang	Herb	Do.	Waste ground, 3,000-9,000 feet	One of the commonest weeds.
Morus alba, *Linn.* ..	Mulberry	Tut	Tree	Do.	Roadsides, etc., 3,000-9,000 feet	Introduced from Afghanistan, and grown everywhere. *M. lævigata*, with long fruit like caterpillars, is also cultivated.
Morus serrata, *Roxb.* ..	Hill mulberry	Do.	Do.	Do.	Forests, 5,000-9,000 feet	A fine tree, but does not generally ripen its fruit.
Ficus scandens, *Roxb.* ..	Creeping fig	Ram-phagwar, or bat-phagwar	Climber	Do.	Climbs on rocks and trees, 4,000-7,000 feet	Very common in ravines near water. Climbs like ivy. Fruit small and tasteless.
Ficus palmata, *Forsk.* ..	Wild fig	Phagwar	Tree	Do.	Open ground and forests, 3,000-7,000 feet	Very common. The fruit is small and insipid. *Ficus Roxburghii*, called 'bar' (the fruit is called 'hurmal'), is also found occasionally.
[Ficus foveolata	—	—	—	—	Kagan valley, 5,000 feet]	

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
URTICACEÆ (*continued*):						
Girardinia heterophylle *Dcne.*	Himalayan nettle	Ker	Herb	Greenish yellow	Forests, 5,000-8,000 feet	A large, coarse nettle, which stings badly. Some species of Urtica, resembliag the English stinging nettle, are also met with occasionally.
[Lecanthus Wallichii, *Wedd.*	—	—	—	—	Balimang, Konsh valley, 6,000 feet]	
Debregeasia hypoleuca, *Wedd.*	—	Chinjli	Shrub or small tree	Greenish yellow	Ravines, 4,000-6,000 feet	Very common. The small, orange-coloured fruit is eaten.
PLATANACEÆ (Plane family):						
Platanus orientalis, *Linn.*	Plane-tree	Chinar	Large tree	Do.	Near water, 4,000-8,000 feet	Introduced from north of Persia. Grows to a large size in suitable localities. [There is a huge tree, some 11 yards in circumference, at Nilan Bhotu, in the Khanpur hills. There is another very fine one on the edge of a tank on the road from Nawanshahr to Mirpur. —*Ed.*]
JUGLANDEÆ (Walnut family):						
Juglans regia, *Linn.* ..	Walnut	Akhor	Tree	Do.	Open ground and forests, 3,000-10,000 feet	The fruit is called 'akhrot.' That of the wild tree is hardly worth eating. [The cultivated tree is called 'chanja,' the wild tree 'bati.'—*Ed.*]

CUPULIFERÆ :						
Betula utilis, *Don.* ..	Silver birch	Burj	Tree	Greenish yellow	Hill-sides, 9,000-12,000 feet	The 'bhojpattra' of Kashmir, nearly allied to the European silver birch. Found only at high altitudes.
Alnus nitida, *Endl.* ..	Alder	Sharol	Do.	Do.	Damp places, 4,000-8,000 feet	A very fine tree, usually found near streams and in shady ravines.
Quercus semecarpifolia, *Smith.*	Oak	Banjar	Do.	Do.	Forests, 8,000-10,000 feet	Not common, except in certain localities, such as the Bhisti hill, Lal Khan ka dera, etc.
Quercus dilatata, *Lindl.*	Do.	Barungi, or tor banjei	Do.	Do.	Forests, 6,000-9,000 feet	A common and characteristic tree of the upper forests.
Quercus incana, *Roxb.* ..	Hoary oak	Rhin, or spin-ban	Do.	Do.	Open ground and forests, 4,000-7,000 feet	The commonest of the Hazara oaks; somewhat resembles the European holm-oak, *Quercus ilex*, which is said to grow also in Hazara, and is common in Chitral and elsewhere.
Quercus glauca, *Thunb.*	Oak	Barain	Do.	Do.	Ravines, etc., 4,000-6,000 feet	Occasionally met with.
Corylus Colurna, *Linn.*..	Hazel	Urni	Do.	Do.	Forests, 5,000-7,000 feet	Common in Kagan, but not elsewhere; resembles the English hazel.
SALICINEÆ (Willow family):						
Salix tetrasperma, *Roxb.*	Willow	Bins	Do.	Yellow	Near water, 3,000-7,000 feet	This and several other kinds of willow are common in Hazara.
Salix Babylonica, *Linn.*	Weeping willow	Majnu, bins	Do.	Do.	Do.	Introduced, and commonly grown near streams and springs.
Populus ciliata, *Wall.* ..	Poplar	Palach, bagru (*P.*)	Do.	Do.	Forests, 4,000-9,000 feet	A fine forest tree.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
SALICINEÆ (*continued*):						
Populus alba, *Linn.* ..	White poplar	Safeda	Tree	Yellow	4,000-6,000 feet	Not truly wild in the District, perhaps, but generally planted. A handsome tree, with white bark.
GNETACEÆ:						
Ephedra vulgaris, *Rich.*	—	Asmani	Shrub	—	Hill-sides, 9,000-12,000 feet	A dwarf leafless shrub, found only at high altitudes.
CONIFERÆ:						
Juniperus macropoda, *Boiss.*	Juniper	Chalai	Tree	—	Hill-sides, 8,000-12,000 feet	In Upper Kagan only.
Juniperus pseudo-sabina, *Fisch.*	Dwarf juniper	Bhentri	Dwarf shrub	—	Do.	In higher hills only.
Taxus baccata, *Linn.* ..	Yew	Barmi	Tree	—	Forests, 7,000-9,000 feet	The English yew; common in all forest tracts.
Pinus excelsa, *Wall.* ..	Bhotan or blue pine	Biar	Do.	—	Forests, 7,000-11,000 feet	One of the commonest forest trees. The wood is very valuable.
Pinus longifolia, *Roxb.* ..	Long-leaved pine	Chir	Do.	—	Forests, 4,000-7,000 feet	The commonest and most characteristic tree of Hazara. The 'chil' of the Punjab.
Cedrus Libani, *Barrel*; var. Deodara, *Hook. f.*	Deodar cedar	Diar (called 'paludar' in Kagan)	Do.	—	Forests, 6,000-8,000 feet	Common in forest tracts, especially in Kagan. The most valuable of all the timber trees in the District.
Picea Morinda, *Link.* ..	Himalayan spruce	Kachal, or Achar	Do.	—	Forests, 8,000-10,000 feet	A very fine tree in the upper forests; most common in Kagan.

Abies Webbiana, *Lindley*	Silver fir	Paludar (called 'rewar' in Kagan)	Tree	—	Forests, 7,000-10,000 feet	Very common in all forest tracts.
ORCHIDACEÆ:						
Cephalanthera ensifolia, *Rich.*	—	—	Herb	White	Forests, 6,000-9,000 feet	A sweet-scented orchid, flowering in spring; common in most forest tracts.
Habenaria intermedia, *Don.*	—	—	Do.	Do.	Forests, 6,000-8,000 feet	This and other species of Habenaria are not uncommon in Hazara. A fine Venus's slipper (*Cypripedium cordigerum*) may also be found occasionally at high altitudes, and various other ground orchids, but none of them are plentiful.
IRIDEÆ (Iris family):						
Iris Aitchisoni, *Boiss.* ..	—	—	Do.	Yellow	Open ground, 3,000-4,000 feet	A handsome flower; common in the Siran valley below Khaki, and elsewhere. NOTE.—The blue and white irises so common about graveyards are introduced, being forms of *Iris Germanica*.
AMARYLLIDEÆ:						
Ixiolirion montanum, *Herb.*	—	—	Do.	Dark blue	Cornfields, 4,000-5,000 feet	A very handsome flower; plentiful only in certain parts of the Pakhli valley. Flowers in spring in the green corn.
DIOSCOREACEÆ:						
[Dioscorea deltoidea, *Wall.*	—	—	—	—	Kagan, 6,600 feet]	
LILIACEÆ:						
Smilax elegans, *Wall.* ..	—	Kamori, or wilri	Climber	Greenish brown	Amongst bushes, 4,000-7,000 feet	This and other species of Smilax are common in the District; flowers in spring.

APPENDIX I—*continued.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Botanical Name.	*English Name.*	*Vernacular Name.*	*Tree, Shrub, or Herb.*	*Colour of Flower.*	*Locality and Altitude.*	*Remarks.*
LILIACEÆ (*continued*):						
Asparagus gracilis, *Royle*	—	Nanur, or ban tatura	Herb	Cream colour	Dry banks, 4,000-6,000 feet	Other species are common in the upper forests.
Polygonatum multiflorum, *Albioni.*	Solomon's seal	Birgandal, or mithu	Do.	White	Forests, 7,000-9,000 feet	This, and also *P. verticillatum*, are common in forests. A medicine for buffaloes is made from the root.
Eremurus Himalaicus, *Baker.*	—	Shilei	Do.	Cream colour	Open hill-sides, 7,000-10,000 feet	A very handsome plant, cultivated in gardens in England. The leaves are cooked and eaten as a vegetable. It is rare in the District.
Allium rubellum, *M. Bieb.*	Wild onion	—	Do.	Purple	Open ground, 4,000-6,000 feet	A very common plant.
Scilla Hohenackeri, *Fisch.*	Squill	—	Do.	Mauve	Open ground, 3,000-5,000 feet	A small bluebell, common about Mansehra and other parts of the District. Flowers in spring.
Lilium polyphyllum, *Don.*	Miran Jani lily	—	Do.	Cream colour	Open ground, 7,000-9,000 feet	Well known in the Galis, etc.; very handsome; flowers in summer.
Lilium roseum, *Wall* ..	Hazara lily	Ghandal	Do.	Pale pink	Open ground, 3,000-5,000 feet	A characteristic plant of the District; flowers in spring.
Tulipa stellata, *Hook* ..	Tulip	Ghan-tol (*P.*), ku-karmuna	Do.	Pink and white	Fields, 1,600-7,000 feet	Very common in the spring, especially in the green corn.

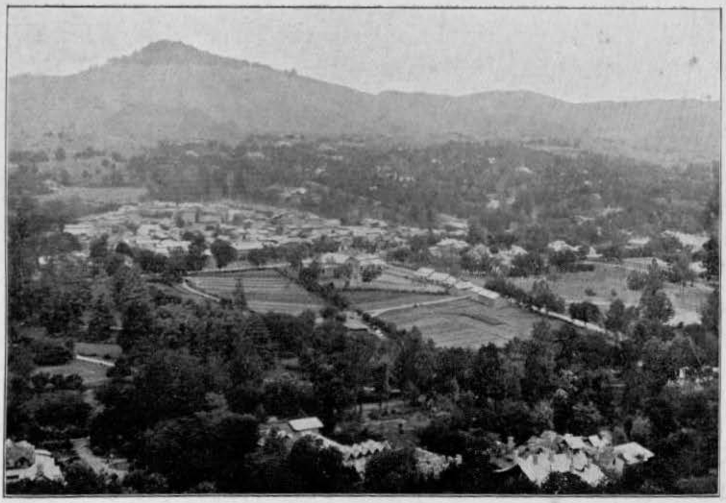
Gagea lutea, *Schultz* ..	—	Kukar-muna, owrakei (*P.*)	Herb	Yellow	Grassy slopes, 3,000-10,000 feet	Tiny star-like flower, with grassy leaves ; common everywhere ; said to be injurious to horses.
Colchicum luteum, *Baker*	—	Qiamat-gul	Do.	Do.	Do.	Resembles a small crocus. Flowers in January and February, before the leaves are up. [An explanation given for the vernacular name ('Resurrection-Flower') is that the colour of the flower is that which the faces of the wicked will turn on the Judgment Day ; but a more natural and poetical explanation is that the flower is so called because it is the harbinger of spring.—*Ed.*]
COMMELINACEÆ :						
[Commelina Benghalensis	—	—	—	—	Abbottabad]	
AROIDEÆ (Arum family) :						
Arisæma Wallichianum, *Hook. f.*	Cobra plant	Suran	Herb	Brown and yellow	Forests, 6,000-8,000 feet	Very handsome, and quite common in forest tracts.
Arisæma Jacquemontii, *Blume.*	Small cobra plant	Surni	Do.	Green and yellow	Forests and open ground, 6,000-8,000 feet	Similar to the above, but smaller and more slender, and of paler colour. There are other species of Arisæma also to be found.
ALISMACEÆ (Water-plantain family) :						
Alisma Plantago, *Linn.*	Water-plantain	—	Do.	White	Ditches and pools, 3,000-6,000 feet	Common here as in England. The arrow-head (Sagittaria) is also fairly common.
[Sagittaria Serpyllifolia	—	—	—	—	In water near Shinkiari, 3,000-3,500 feet]	—

APPENDIX II

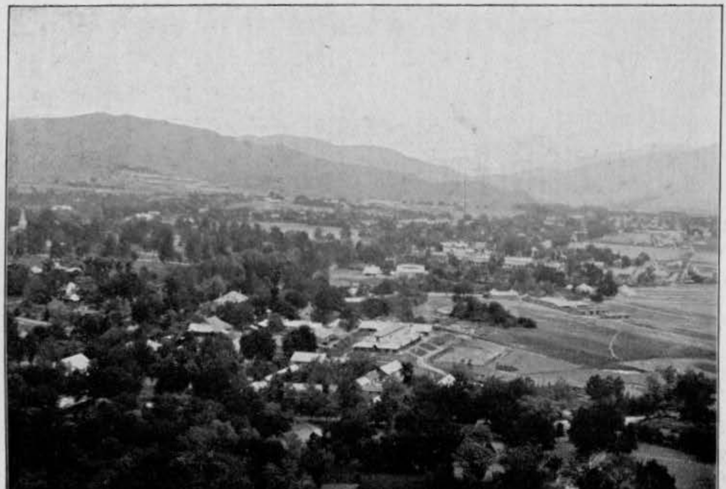
LIST OF THE BIRDS THAT HAVE BEEN OBSERVED IN THE HAZARA DISTRICT.

NOTE.—The serial order and nomenclature followed are those of Blandford's 'Fauna of British India, Birds.'

Serial No.	*Latin Name.*	*English Name.*	*Remarks.*
1	Corvus corax.	The raven.	
3	Corvus corone.	Carrion crow.	
4	Corvus macrorhynchus.	Jungle crow.	The common crow of the Murree hills.
5	Corvus frugilegus.	The rook.	A winter visitor.
6	Corvus cornix.	Hooded crow.	Ditto.
7	Corvus splendens.	Indian house-crow.	
8	Corvus monedula.	Jackdaw.	A winter visitor; breeds in Kashmir.
13	Urocissa flavirostris.	Yellow-billed blue magpie.	In the hills, from 6,000 to 10,000 feet.
16	Dendrocitta rufa.	Indian tree pie.	Up to 7,000 feet.
24	Garrulus lanceolatus.	Black-throated jay.	In the hills, up to 9,000 feet; in winter occasionally seen in the plains.
26	Garrulus bispecularis.	Himalayan jay.	
28	Nucifraga multipunctata.	Larger-spotted nutcracker.	Above 8,000 feet.
29	Graculus eremita.	Red-billed chough.	In the Upper Kagan valley.
30	Pyrrhocorax alpinus.	Yellow-billed chough.	Ditto.
31	Parus atriceps.	Indian grey tit.	
34	Parus monticola.	Green-backed tit.	
35	Ægithaliscus erythrocephalus.	Red-headed tit.	
42	Machlolophus xanthogenys.	Yellow-cheeked tit.	
44	Lophophanes melanolophus.	Crested black tit.	
76	Garrulax albigularis.	White-throated laughing thrush.	
91	Trochalopterum simile.	Western variegated laughing thrush.	
99	Trochalopterum lineatum.		
105	Argya caudata.	Common babbler.	
110	Crateropus canorus.	Jungle babbler.	
187	Myiophoneus temmincki.	Himalayan whistling thrush.	
191	Larvivora brunnea.	Indian blue chat.	Breeds in the Gali hills in June.



ABBOTTABAD, SOUTHERN PORTION (BRIGADE CIRCULAR HILL IN BACKGROUND).



ABBOTTABAD, NORTHERN PORTION.

204	Lioptila capistrata.	Black-headed sibia.	In the hills above 6,000 feet.
226	Zosterops palpebrosa.	White-eye.	
237	Pteruthius erythropterus.	Red-winged shrike tit.	Not common.
241	Pteruthius xanthochloris.	Green shrike tit.	Very rare ; breeds in July.
260	Cephalopyrus flammiceps.	The firecap.	Breeds in May, above 6,000 feet.
269	Hypsipetes psaroides.	Himalayan black bulbul.	
284	Molpastes leucogenys.	White-cheeked bulbul.	
316	Sitta cinnamomeiventris.	Cinnamon-bellied nuthatch.	
320	Sitta kashmirensis.	Brook nuthatch.	Very rare.
323	Sitta leucopsis.	White-cheeked nuthatch.	Common in the Gali hills.
327	Dicrurus ater.	Black drongo.	
328	Dicrurus longicaudatus.	Ashy drongo.	
341	Certhia himalayana.	Himalayan tree-creeper.	
342	Certhia hodgsoni.	Hodgson's tree-creeper.	Very rare.
348	Tichodroma muraria.	Wall-creeper.	A winter visitor.
358	Regulus cristatus.	Gold-crest.	
374	Orthotomus sutorius.	Indian tailor-bird.	
396	Hypolais caligata.	Booted tree-warbler.	A winter visitor.
402	Sylvia affinis.	Indian lesser white-throated warbler.	A winter visitor; breeds in Kashmir.
407	Phylloscopus tristis.	Brown willow warbler.	Breeds in Ladakh ; a winter visitor.
411	Phylloscopus neglectus.	Plain willow warbler.	A winter visitor.
415	Phylloscopus proregulus.	Pallas's willow warbler.	Breeds in May and June in the Galis.
418	Phylloscopus humii.	Hume's willow warbler.	Uncommon ; breeds in Galis.
421	Acanthopneuste nitidus.	Green willow-warbler.	Rare.
422	Acanthopneuste vividanus.	Greenish willow-warbler.	
424	Acanthopneuste magnirostris.	Large-billed willow-warbler.	Breeds in Galis, above 6,000 feet.
428	Acanthopneuste occipitalis.	Large-crowned willow-warbler.	Very common.
429	Acanthopneuste trochiloides.	Blyth's large-crowned willow-warbler.	Breeds in the Galis; uncommon.
434	Cryptolopha xanthoschista.	Hodgson's grey - headed fly - catcher warbler.	Breeds in the Galis.
450	Horornis pallidus.	Pale bush-warbler.	
458	Suya crinigera.	Brown hill-warbler.	Common up to 6,000 feet.
466	Prinia inornata.	Indian wren-warbler.	
469	Lanius lahtora.	India grey shrike.	
473	Lanius vitatus.	Bay-backed shrike.	

APPENDIX II—*continued.*

Serial No.	*Latin Name.*	*English Name.*	*Remarks.*
476	Lanius erythronotus.	Rufous-backed shrike.	
495	Pericrocotus brevirostris.	Short-billed minivet.	
499	Pericrocotus roseus.	Rosy minivet.	
505	Campophaja melanoschista.	The dark grey cuckoo shrike.	Breeds in Galis, above 5,000 feet.
518	Oriolus kundoo.	Indian oriole.	
528	Pastor roseus.	Rose-coloured pastor.	Winter visitor.
529	Sturnus humii.	Himalayan starling.	Winter visitor; breeds in Kashmir.
532	Sturnus menzbieri.	Common Indian starling.	Winter visitor.
544	Temenuchus pagodarum.	Black-headed myna.	
549	Acridotheres tristis.	Common myna.	
558	Hemichelidon sibirica.	Sooty fly-catcher.	Common in Galis, where it breeds.
561	Siphia parva.	European red-breasted fly-catcher.	
567	Cyornis leucomelanurus.	Slaty-blue fly-catcher.	
568	Cyornis superciliaris.	White-browed blue fly-catcher.	
575	Cyornis rubeculoides.	Blue-throated fly-catcher.	
579	Stoparola melanops.	Verditer fly-catcher.	
592	Culicicapa ceylonensis.	Grey-headed fly-catcher.	
598	Terpsiphone paradisi.	India paradise fly-catcher.	
604	Rhipidura albifrontata.	White-browed fantail fly-catcher.	
608	Pratincola caprata.	Pied bush-chat.	
610	Pratincola maura.	Indian bush-chat.	
615	Orcicola ferrea.	Dark grey bush-chat.	
619	Saxicola capistrata.	White-headed chat.	
626	Saxicola deserti.	Desert chat.	
630	Henicurus maculatus.	Western spotted fork-tail.	
637	Microcichla scouleri.	Little fork-tail.	Breeds up to 6,000 feet; not common.
638	Chimarrhornis leucocephalus.	White-capped redstart.	
644	Ruticilla rufiventris.	Indian redstart.	A winter visitor.
646	Rhyacornis fuliginosus.	Plumbeous redstart.	Common.
647	Cyanecula succica.	Indian blue-throat.	

657	Adelura cæruleicephala.	Blue-headed robin.	Breeds above 9,000 feet in Galis.
661	Thamnobia cambaiensis.	Brown-backed Indian robin.	
663	Copsychus saularis.	Magpie robin.	
672	Merula albicincta.	White-collared ouzel.	
673	Merula castanea.	Grey-headed ouzel.	
676	Merula boulboul.	Grey-winged ouzel.	A beautiful songster.
677	Merula atrigularis.	Black-throated ouzel.	
678	Merula unicolor.	Tickell's ouzel.	
690	Petrophila erythrogastra.	Chestnut-bellied rock-thrush.	
691	Petrophila cinclorhyncha.	Blue-headed rock-thrush.	
693	Petrophila cyanus.	Western blue rock-thrush.	
695	Turdus viscivorus.	Missel-thrush.	
698	Oreocincla damna.	Small-billed mountain thrush.	
709	Cinclus asiaticus.	The brown dipper.	
713	Accentor himalayanus.	Altai accentor.	In winter.
716	Tharrhaleus atrigularis.	Black-throated accentor.	
734	Uroloucha malabarica.	White-throated munia.	
740	Coccothraustes humii.	Hume's hawfinch.	
741	Pycnorhamphus icteroides.	Black and yellow grosbeak.	Common in Galis.
744	Mycerobas melanoxanthus.	Spotted-winged grosbeak.	
745	Pyrrhula aurantiaca.	Orange bullfinch.	
757	Propasser grandis.	Red-mantled rosefinch.	
758	Propasser rhodochrous.	Pink-browed rosefinch.	
761	Carpodacus erythrinus.	Common rosefinch.	
767	Carduelis caniceps.	Himalayan goldfinch.	
771	Metoponia pusilla.	Gold-fronted finch.	
772	Hypacanthis spinoides.	Himalayan greenfinch.	
774	Fringilla montifringilla.	Brambling.	
775	Gymnorhis flavicollis.	Yellow-throated sparrow.	
776	Passer domesticus.	House-sparrow.	
778	Passer hispaniolensis.	Spanish sparrow.	
779	Passer montanus.	Tree-sparrow.	
780	Passer cinnamomeus.	Cinnamon tree-sparrow.	
787	Fringillauda sordida.	Stoticzka's mountain-finch.	A winter visitor.
790	Emberiza fucata.	Grey-headed bunting.	
793	Emberiza stewarti.	White-capped bunting.	

APPENDIX II—*continued.*

Serial No.	*Latin Name.*	*English Name.*	*Remarks.*
794	Emberiza stracheyi.	Eastern meadow bunting.	
795	Emberiza buchanani.	Grey-necked bunting.	
799	Emberiza melanocephala.	Black-headed bunting.	
803	Melophus melanicterus.	Crested bunting.	
804	Chelidon urbica.	The martin.	
805	Chelidon kashmiriensis.	Kashmir martin.	The common martin of the Galis.
808	Cotile riparia.	Sand-martin.	
809	Cotile sinensis.	Indian sand-martin.	
810	Ptyonoprogne rupestris.	Crag-martin.	
811	Ptyonoprogne concolor.	Dusky crag-martin.	
813	Hirundo rustica.	Swallow.	
818	Hirundo smithii.	Wire-tailed swallow.	
819	Hirundo fluvicola.	Indian cliff-swallow.	
821	Hirundo daurica.	Daurian striated swallow.	
822	Hirundo nepalensis.	Hodgson's striated swallow.	
824	Hirundo rufula.	European striated swallow.	
826	Motacilla alba.	White wagtail.	
829	Motacilla personata.	Masked wagtail.	
830	Motacilla hodgsoni.	Hodgson's pied wagtail.	
831	Motacilla maderaspatensis.	Large pied wagtail.	
832	Motacilla melanope.	Grey wagtail.	
833	Motacilla borealis.	Grey-headed wagtail.	
837	Motacilla citreola.	Yellow-headed wagtail.	
838	Motacilla citreoloides.	Hodgson's yellow-headed wagtail.	
840	Anthus trivialis.	The tree-pipit.	
844	Anthus similis.	Brown rock-pipit.	
846	Anthus striolatus.	Blyth's pipit.	
847	Anthus rufulus.	Indian pipit.	
851	Anthus spinoletta.	Water pipit.	
853	Oreocorys sylvanus.	Upland pipit.	

860	Alauda arvensis.	Skylark.	
861	Alauda gulgula.	Indian skylark.	
862	Calandrella brachydactyla.	Short-toed lark.	
874	Galerita cristata.	The crested lark.	
878	Ammomanes phœnicuroides.	Desert finch-lark.	
895	Arachnechthra asiatica.	Purple sun-bird.	
946	Gecinus squamatus.	West Himalayan scaly-bellied green woodpecker.	
950	Gecinus occipitalis.	Black-naped green woodpecker.	
960	Hypopicus hyperythrus.	Rufous-bellied pied woodpecker.	
961	Dendrocopus himalayensis.	West Himalayan pied woodpecker.	
963	Dendrocopus sindianus.	The Sind pied woodpecker.	
969	Dendrocopus auriceps.	Brown-fronted pied woodpecker.	
986	Brachypternus aurantius.	Golden-backed woodpecker.	
1001	Picumnus innominatus.	Speckled piculet.	
1003	Inyx torquilla.	Common wryneck.	
1006	Megalaima marshallorum.	Great Himalayan barbet.	In the Galis.
1022	Coracias indica.	Indian roller.	
1024	Coracias garrula.	European roller.	
1026	Merops viridis.	Indian bee-eater.	
1027	Merops philippinus.	Blue-tailed bee-eater.	
1033	Ceryle varia.	Indian pied kingfisher.	
1034	Ceryle lugubris.	Himalayan pied kingfisher.	
1035	Alcedo ispida.	Common kingfisher.	
1044	Halcyon smyrnensis.	White-breasted kingfisher.	
1066	Upupa epops.	European hoopoe.	
1068	Cypselus melba.	Alpine swift.	
1069	Cypselus apus.	European swift.	
1073	Cypselus affinis.	Common Indian swift.	
1077	Chætura nudipes.	White-necked spine-tail.	
1092	Caprimulgus europæus.	European nightjar.	
1095	Caprimulgus indicus.	Jungle nightjar.	Breeds in Galis.
1104	Cuculus canorus.	The cuckoo.	
1106	Cuculus poliocephalus.	Small cuckoo.	
1107	Cuculus micropterus.	Indian cuckoo.	
1108	Hierococcyx sparverioides.	Large hawk-cuckoo.	
1109	Hierococcyx varius.	Common hawk-cuckoo.	

APPENDIX II—*continued.*

Serial No.	*Latin Name.*	*English Name.*	*Remarks.*
1118	Coccystes jacobinus.	Pied crested cuckoo.	
1120	Eudynamis honorata.	Indian koel.	
1138	Palæornis torquatus.	Rose-winged paroquet.	
1139	Palæornis cyanocephalus.	Western blossom-headed paroquet.	
1141	Palæornis schisticeps.	Slaty-headed paroquet.	
1152	Strix flammea.	Barn-owl.	
1156	Asio otus.	Long-eared owl.	
1158	Syrnium nivicola.	Himalayan wood-owl.	
1159	Syrnium biddulphi.	Scully's wood-owl.	
1165	Ketupa flavipes.	Tawny fish-owl.	
1168	Bubo bengalensis.	Rock-horned owl.	
1173	Scops giu.	Scops owl.	
1175	Scops spilocephalus.	Spotted Himalayan scops owl.	Rare ; breeds in Galis.
1179	Scops semitorques.	Plume-foot scops owl.	Breeds in Galis.
1180	Athene brama.	Spotted owlet.	
1183	Glaucidium cuculoides.	Large barred owlet.	
1186	Glaucidium brodiei.	Collared pigmy owlet.	
1189	Pandion haliaëtus.	Osprey.	
1190	Vultur monachus.	Cinereous vulture.	
1192	Gyps fulvus.	Griffon vulture.	
1193	Gyps himalayensis.	Himalayan griffon.	
1196	Pseudogyps bengalensis.	White-backed vulture.	
1198	Neophron percnopterus.	Egyptian vulture.	
1199	Gypætus barbatus.	Lämmergeyer.	
1200	Aquila chrysaëtus.	Golden eagle.	
1201	Aquila heliaca.	Imperial eagle.	
1202	Aquila bifasciata.	Steppe eagle.	
1203	Aquila vindhiana.	Tawny eagle.	
1207	Hieraëtus fasciatus.	Bonelli's eagle.	
1210	Ictinaëtus malayensis.	Black eagle.	Breeds in Galis.
1213	Spizaëtus nepalensis.	Hodgson's hawk eagle.	Ditto.
1220	Butastur teesa.	White-eyed buzzard eagle.	
1223	Haliëtus leucoryphus.	Pallas's fishing eagle.	

1229	Milvus govinda.	Pariah kite.	
1233	Circus macrurus.	Pale harrier.	
1234	Circus cineraceus.	Montagu's harrier.	
1235	Circus cyaneus.	Hen-harrier.	
1237	Circus æruginosus.	Marsh-harrier.	
1239	Buteo ferox.	Long-legged buzzard.	
1243	Astur palumbarius.	Goshawk.	
1244	Astur badius.	Shikra.	
1247	Accipiter nisus.	Sparrow-hawk.	
1249	Pernis cristatus.	Crested honey-buzzard.	
1254	Falco peregrinus.	Peregrine falcon.	
1255	Falco peregrinator.	Shahin falcon.	
1257	Falco jugger.	Laggar falcon.	
1258	Falco cherrug.	Cherrug falcon.	
1260	Falco subbuteo.	Hobby.	Breeds in Galis.
1263	Æsalon regulus.	Merlin.	
1264	Æsalon chicquera.	Red-headed merlin.	
1265	Tinnunculus alandarius.	Kestrel.	
1283	Sphenocercus sphenurus.	Kokla green pigeon.	
1292	Columba intermedia.	Indian blue rock-pigeon	
1293	Columba livia.	Blue rock-pigeon.	
1294	Columba rupestris.	Blue hill-pigeon.	
1298	Palumbus casiotis.	Eastern wood-pigeon.	
1305	Turtur ferrago.	Indian turtle-dove.	
1307	Turtur suratensis.	Spotted dove.	
1309	Turtur cambayensis.	Little brown dove.	
1310	Turtur risorius.	Indian ring-dove.	
1316	Pterocles arenarius.	Black-bellied sand-grouse.	A few sometimes in Lower Hazara.
1321	Pteroclurus exustus.	Common sand-grouse.	In Lower Hazara.
1333	Catreus wallichi.	Cheer pheasant.	Not common.
1334	Pucrasia macrolopha.	Koklas pheasant.	5,000 feet to 10,000 feet.
1336	Gennæus albicristatus.	White-crested kalij.	
1342	Lophophorus refulgens.	Monaul.	
1344	Tragopan melanocephalus.	Western horned-pheasant.	Very rare.
1355	Coturnix communis.	Common quail.	
1370	Caccabis chukor.	Chikor.	
1371	Ammoperdix bonhami.	Sisi.	
1372	Francolinus vulgaris.	Black partridge.	
1375	Francolinus pondicerianus.	Grey partridge.	

APPENDIX II—*continued.*

Serial No.	*Latin Name.*	*English Name.*	*Remarks.*
1378	Tetraogallus himalayensis.	Himalayan snow-cock.	Kagan valley.
1385	Turnix dussumieri.	Little button-quail.	
1384	Turnix tanki.	Indian button-quail.	
1402	Gallinula chloropus.	Moorhen.	
1405	Fulica atra.	Coot.	
1411	Anthropoides virgo.	Demoiselle crane, or koolan.	
1415	Houbara macqueeni.	Houbara.	
1418	Œdicnemus scolopax.	Stone curlew.	
1419	Esacus recurvirostris.	Great stone plover.	
1422	Cursorius coromandelicus.	Indian courser.	
1427	Glareola lactea.	Small Indian pratincole.	
1431	Sarcogrammus indicus.	Red-wattled lapwing.	
1436	Vanellus vulgaris.	Lapwing or peewit.	
1446	Ægiatilis alexandrina.	Kentish plover.	
1447	Ægiatilis dubia.	Little-ringed plover.	
1451	Himantopus candidus.	Black-winged stilt.	
1456	Limosa belgica.	Black-tailed godwit.	
1460	Totanus hypolencus.	Common sandpiper.	
1461	Totanus glareola.	Wood sandpiper.	
1462	Totanus ochropus.	Green sandpiper.	
1466	Totanus glottis.	Greenshank.	
1468	Pavoncella pugnax.	Ruff and reeve.	
1474	Tringa temmincki.	Temminck's stint.	
1482	Scolopax rusticula.	Woodcock.	Breeds in the Galis.
1484	Gallinago cœlestis.	Common snipe.	
1486	Gallinago solitaria.	Solitary snipe.	Rare.
1487	Gallinago gallinula.	Jack snipe.	
1488	Rostratula capensis.	Painted snipe.	Not common.
1490	Larus ridibundus.	Laughing gull.	
1496	Hydrochelidon hybrida.	Whiskered tern.	
1499	Sterna anglica.	Gull-billed tern.	
1503	Sterna seena.	Indian river tern.	
1504	Sterna melanogaster.	Black-bellied tern.	

1510	Sterna minuta.	Little tern.	
1517	Rhynchops albicollis.	Indian skimmer.	
1522	Pelecanus crispus.	Dalmatian pelican.	
1526	Phalocracorax carbo.	Large cormorant.	
1528	Phalocracorax javanicus.	Little cormorant.	
1545	Platalea leucorodia.	Spoonbill.	
1547	Ciconia nigra.	Black stork.	
1548	Dissura episcopus.	White-necked stork.	
1555	Ardea cinerea.	Common heron.	
1559	Herodias alba.	Large egret.	
1561	Herodias garzetta.	Little egret.	
1562	Bubulcus coromandus.	Cattle egret.	
1565	Ardeola grayi.	Pond heron.	
1568	Nycticorax griseus.	Night heron.	
1570	Ardetta minuta.	Little bittern.	
1575	Phœnicopterus roseus.	Common flamingo.	
1577	Cygnus olor.	Mute swan.	Occasional visitor.
1579	Anser ferus.	Grey lag goose.	
1580	Anser albifrons.	White-fronted goose.	Occasional visitor.
1583	Anser indicus.	Bar-headed goose.	
1587	Tadorna cornuta.	Sheldrake.	
1588	Casarca rutila.	Brahminy duck.	
1592	Anas boscus.	Mallard.	
1595	Chaulelasmus streperus.	Gadwall.	
1597	Nettium crecca.	Teal.	
1599	Mareca penelope.	Widgeon.	
1600	Dafila acuta.	Pintail.	
1601	Querquedula circia.	Blue-winged teal.	Uncommon.
1602	Spatula clypeata.	Shoveller.	
1604	Netta rufina.	Red-crested pochard.	
1605	Nyroca ferina.	Pochard.	
1606	Nyroca ferruginea.	White-eyed duck.	
1608	Nyroca marila.	Scaup.	Very rare.
1609	Nyroca fuligula.	Tufted duck.	
1612	Mergus albellus.	Smew.	Rare.
1613	Merganser castor.	Goosander.	
1614	Merganser serrator.	Red-breasted merganser.	
1617	Podicipes albipennis.	Dabchick.	

APPENDIX III

TRANSLATION* OF THE ROCK INSCRIPTIONS AT MANSEHRA.

[N.B.—*The headings are not in the original.*]

EDICT I.

THE SACREDNESS OF LIFE.

THIS pious edict has been written by command of His Sacred Majesty King Priyadarsin :†

Here‡ no animal may be slaughtered for sacrifice, nor may holiday-feasts be held, for His Majesty King Priyadarsin sees manifold evil in holiday-feasts. Nevertheless, certain holiday-feasts are meritorious in the sight of His Majesty King Priyadarsin.

Formerly, in the kitchen of His Majesty King Priyadarsin each day many thousands of living creatures were slain to make curries.

At the present moment, when this pious edict is being written, only these three living creatures, namely, two peacocks and one deer, are killed daily, and the deer not invariably.

Even these three creatures shall not be slaughtered in future.

EDICT II.

PROVISION OF COMFORTS FOR MEN AND ANIMALS.

Everywhere in the dominions of His Majesty King Priyadarsin, and likewise in neighbouring realms, such as those of the Chola, Pandya, Satiyaputra, and Keralaputra, in Ceylon,

* Where the Mansehra version is incomplete or doubtful, the translator has usually followed the more perfect copy of the edicts at Shahbazgarhi, on the Peshawar border.

† The title adopted by Asoka. It means 'the Humane.'

‡ 'Here' probably refers to the capital, Pâtaliputra.

in the dominions of the Greek King Antiochus, and in those of the other Kings subordinate to that Antiochus—everywhere, on behalf of His Majesty King Priyadarsin, have two kinds of remedies (? hospitals) been disseminated—remedies for men, and remedies for beasts. Healing herbs, medicinal for man and medicinal for beast, wherever they were lacking, have everywhere been imported and planted.

In like manner, roots and fruits, wherever they were lacking, have been imported and planted.

On the roads, trees have been planted, and wells have been dug for the use of man and beast.

Edict III.

THE QUINQUENNIAL ASSEMBLY.

Thus saith His Majesty King Priyadarsin:

In the thirteenth year of my reign I issued this command: Everywhere in my dominions the lieges, and the Commissioners, and the District Officers must every five years repair to the General Assembly, for the special purpose, in addition to other business, of proclaiming the Law of Piety,* to wit, 'Obedience to father and mother is good; liberality to friends, acquaintances, relatives, Brahmans, and ascetics is good; respect for the sacredness of life is good; avoidance of extravagance and violence of language is good.'

The clergy will thus instruct the lieges in detail, both according to the letter and the spirit.

Edict IV.

THE PRACTICE OF PIETY.

For a long time past, even for many hundred years, the slaughter of living creatures, cruelty to animate beings, disrespect to relatives, and disrespect to Brahmans and ascetics, have grown.

But now, by reason of the practice of piety by His Majesty King Priyadarsin, instead of the sound of the war-drum, the sound of the drum of piety is heard, while heavenly spectacles of processional cars, elephants, illuminations, and the like, are displayed to the people.

* Sanskrit '*dharma*,' and so throughout.

As for many hundred years past has not happened, at this present, by reason of His Majesty King Priyadarsin's proclamation of the Law of Piety, the cessation of slaughter of living creatures, the prevention of cruelty to animate beings, respect to relatives, respect to Brahmans and ascetics, obedience to parents and obedience to elders, are growing.

Thus, and in many other ways, the practice of piety is growing, and His Majesty King Priyadarsin will cause that practice to grow still more.

The sons, grandsons, and great-grandsons of His Majesty King Priyadarsin will promote the growth of that practice, until the end of the cycle, and, abiding in piety and morality, will proclaim the Law of Piety; for the best of all deeds is the proclamation of the Law of Piety, and the practice of piety is not for the immoral man.

In this matter growth is good, and not to decrease is good. For this very purpose has this writing been made, in order that men may in this matter strive for growth, and not suffer decrease.

This has been written by command of His Majesty King Priyadarsin in the thirteenth year of his reign.

Edict V.

CENSORS OF THE LAW OF PIETY.

Thus saith His Majesty King Priyadarsin:

A good thing is a difficult thing.

The author of a good deed does a difficult thing. Now by me many good deeds have been done. Should my sons, grandsons, and my descendants after them until the end of the cycle follow in this path, they will do well; but in this matter, should a man neglect the commandment, he will do ill, inasmuch as sin is easily committed.

Now in all the long ages past, officers known as Censors of the Law of Piety had never been appointed, whereas in the fourteenth year of my reign Censors of the Law of Piety were appointed by me.

They are engaged among people of all sects in promoting the establishment of piety, the progress of piety, and the welfare and happiness of the lieges, as well as of the Yonas, Kambojas, Gandharas, Rashtrikas, Pitenikas, and other

nations on my borders. They are engaged in promoting the welfare and happiness of my hired servants (? soldiers), of Brahmans, of rich and poor, and of the aged, and in removing hindrances from the path of the faithful lieges.

They are engaged in the prevention of wrongful imprisonment or chastisement, in the work of removing hindrances, and of deliverance, considering cases where a man has a large family, has been smitten by calamity, or is advanced in years.

Here,* and in all the provincial towns, they are engaged in the superintendence of all the female establishments of my brothers and sisters and other relatives.

Everywhere in my dominions these Censors of the Law of Piety are engaged with those among my lieges who are devoted to piety, established in piety, or addicted to almsgiving.

For this purpose has this pious edict been written—that it may endure for long, and that my subjects may act accordingly.

Edict VI.

THE PROMPT DISPATCH OF BUSINESS.

Thus saith His Majesty King Priyadarsin :

For a long time past business has not been disposed of, nor have reports been received at all hours.

I have accordingly arranged that at all hours and in all places—whether I am dining or in the ladies' apartments, in my bedroom or in my closet, in my carriage or in the palace gardens—the official reporters should keep me constantly informed of the people's business, which business of the people I am ready to dispose of at any place.

And if, perchance, I personally by word of mouth command that a gift be made or an order executed, or anything urgent is entrusted to the officials, and in that business a dispute arises or fraud occurs among the clergy, I have commanded that immediate report must be made to me at any hour and at any place, for I am never fully satisfied with my exertions and my dispatch of business.

Work I must for the public benefit—and the root of the matter is in exertion and dispatch of business, than which nothing is more efficacious for the general welfare. And

* That is, 'at the capital, Pâtaliputra,' as in Edict I.

for what do I toil? For no other end than this, that I may discharge my debt to animate beings, and that while I make some happy in this world, they may in the next world gain heaven.

For this purpose have I caused this pious edict to be written, that it may long endure, and that my sons, grandsons, and great-grandsons may strive for the public weal; though that is a difficult thing to attain, save by the utmost toil.

Edict VII.

IMPERFECT FULFILMENT OF THE LAW.

His Majesty King Priyadarsin desires that in all places men of all sects may abide, for they all desire mastery over the senses and purity of mind.

Man, however, is unstable in his wishes, and unstable in his likings.

Some of the sects will perform the whole, others will perform but a part of the commandment. Even for a person to whom lavish liberality is impossible, the virtues of mastery over the senses, purity of mind, gratitude, and fidelity are always meritorious.

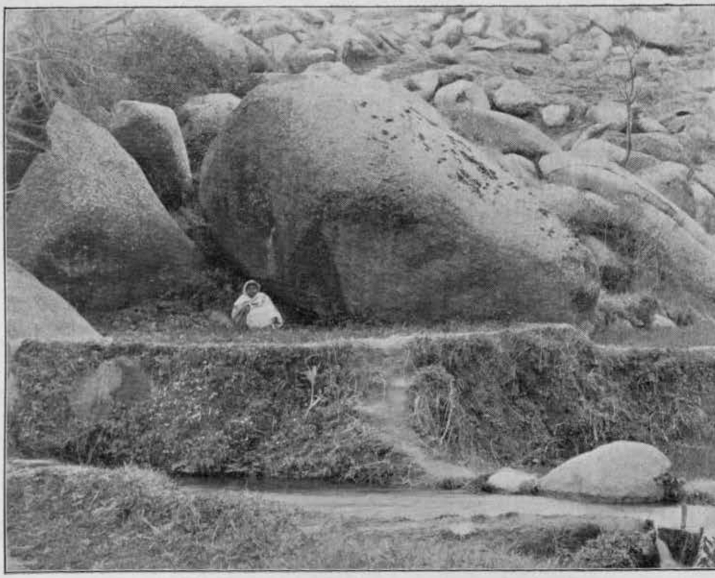
Edict VIII.

PIOUS TOURS.

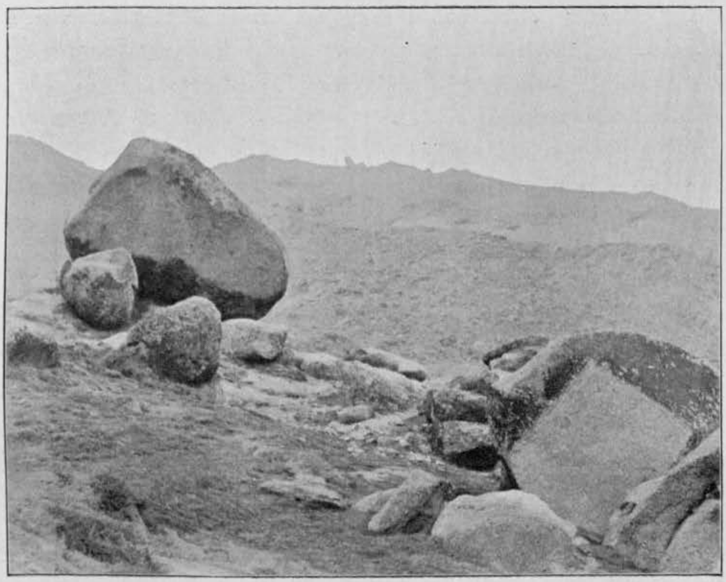
In times past Their Majesties used to go out on so-called tours of pleasure, during which hunting and other similar amusements used to be practised.

His Majesty King Priyadarsin, however, in the eleventh year of his reign went out on the road leading to true knowledge, whence originated here tours devoted to piety, during which are practised the beholding of ascetics and Brahmans, with liberality to them, the beholding of elders, largess of gold, the beholding of the country and the people, proclamation of the Law of Piety, and discussion of the Law of Piety.

Consequently, since that time, there are the pleasures of His Majesty King Priyadarsin, in exchange of those of the past.



THE LOWER ASOKA STONE (TO SEATED FIGURE'S LEFT HAND).



THE TWO UPPER ASOKA STONES (BARERI HILL IN BACKGROUND).

Edict IX.

TRUE CEREMONIAL.

Thus saith His Majesty King Priyadarsin:

People perform various ceremonies on occasions of sickness, the weddings of sons, the weddings of daughters, the birth of children, and departure on journeys. On these and other similar occasions people perform many ceremonies.

But at such times the womankind perform many, manifold, corrupt, and worthless ceremonies. Ceremonies certainly have to be performed, although that sort is fruitless. This sort, however—the ceremonial of piety—bears great fruit; it includes kind treatment of slaves and servants, honour to teachers, respect for life, liberality to ascetics and Brahmans. These things, and others of the same kind, are called the ceremonial of piety.

Therefore ought a father, son, brother, master, friend, or comrade—nay, even a neighbour—to say: 'This is meritorious, this is the ceremonial to be performed until the attainment of the desired end.' By what sort of ceremonies is the desired end attained? for the ceremonial of this world is of doubtful efficacy. Perchance it may accomplish the desired end, perchance its effect may be merely of this world. The ceremonial of piety, on the contrary, is not temporal. If it fails to attain the desired end in this world, it certainly begets endless merit in the other world. If it happens to attain the desired end, then a gain of two kinds is assured—namely, in this world the desired end, and in the other world the begetting of endless merit through the aforesaid ceremonial of piety.

Edict X.

TRUE GLORY.

His Majesty King Priyadarsin does not believe that glory and renown bring much profit unless the people both in the present and the future obediently hearken to the Law of Piety, and conform to its precepts.

For that purpose only does His Majesty King Priyadarsin desire glory and renown.

But whatsoever exertions His Majesty King Priyadarsin

has made, all are for the sake of the life hereafter, so that every one may be freed from peril, which peril is sin.

Difficult, verily, it is to attain such freedom, whether people be of low or of high degree, save by the utmost exertion and complete renunciation; but this is for those of high degree extraordinarily difficult.

Edict XI.

TRUE CHARITY.

There is no such charity as the charitable gift of the Law of Piety, no such friendship as the friendship in piety, no such distribution as the distribution of piety, no such kinship as kinship in piety.

The Law of Piety consists in these things—to wit, kind treatment of slaves and servants, obedience to father and mother, charity to ascetics and Brahmans, respect for the sanctity of life.

Therefore a father, son, brother, master, friend, or comrade —nay, even a neighbour—ought to say: 'This is meritorious, this ought to be done.'

He who acts thus both gains this world and begets infinite merit in the next world by means of this very charity of the Law of Piety.

Edict XII.

TOLERATION.

His Majesty King Priyadarsin does reverence to men of all sects, whether ascetics or householders, by donations and various modes of reverence.

His Majesty, however, cares not so much for donations or external reverence as that there should be a growth of the essence of the matter in all sects. The growth of the essence of the matter assumes various forms, but the root of it is restraint of speech—to wit, a man must not do reverence to his own sect by disparaging that of another man for trivial reasons. Depreciation should be for adequate reasons only, because the sects of other people deserve reverence for one reason or another. By thus acting, a man exalts his own sect, and at the same time does service to the sects of other

people. By acting contrariwise, a man hurts his own sect, and does disservice to the sects of other people. For he who does reverence to his own sect, while disparaging all other sects from a feeling of attachment to his own, on the supposition that he thus glorifies his own sect, in reality by such conduct inflicts severe injury on his own sect.

Self-control, therefore, is meritorious—to wit, hearkening to the law of others, and hearkening willingly.

For this is His Majesty's desire, that adherents of all sects should be fully instructed and sound in doctrine.

The adherents of the several sects must be informed that His Majesty cares not so much for donations or external reverence as that there should be a growth, and a large growth, of the essence of the matter in all sects.

For this very purpose are employed the censors of the Law of Piety, the censors of the women, the (?) inspectors, and other official bodies. And this is the fruit thereof—the growth of one's own sect, and the glorification of the Law of Piety.

Edict XIII.

TRUE CONQUEST.

His Majesty King Priyadarsin, in the ninth year of his reign, conquered the Kalingas.*

One hundred and fifty thousand persons were thence carried away captive, one hundred thousand were there slain, and many times that number perished.

Ever since the annexation of the Kalingas, His Majesty has zealously protected the Law of Piety, has been devoted to that Law, and has proclaimed its precepts.

His Majesty feels remorse on account of the conquest of the Kalingas, because, during the subjugation of a previously unconquered country, slaughter, death, and taking away captive of the people necessarily occur, whereat His Majesty feels profound sorrow and regret.

There is, however, another reason for His Majesty feeling still more regret, inasmuch as in such a country dwell Brahmans and ascetics, men of different sects, and householders, who all practise obedience to elders, obedience to father and

* The country extending along the coast of the Bay of Bengal from the Mahánadi River on the north to or beyond the Krishna River on the south.

mother, obedience to teachers, proper treatment of friends, acquaintances, comrades, relatives, slaves, and servants, with fidelity of devotion. To such people dwelling in that country happen violence, slaughter, and separation from those whom they love.

Even those persons who are themselves protected retain their affections undiminished. Ruin falls on their friends, acquaintances, comrades, and relatives, and in this way violence is done to those who are personally unhurt. All this diffused misery is matter of regret to His Majesty; for there is no country where such communities are not found, including others besides Brahmans and ascetics, nor is there any place in any country where the people are not attached to some one sect or other. The loss of even the hundredth or the thousandth part of the persons who were then slain, carried away captive, or done to death in Kalinga would now be a matter of deep regret to His Majesty.

Although a man should do him an injury, His Majesty holds that it must be patiently borne, so far as it can possibly be borne.

Even upon the forest tribes in his dominions His Majesty has compassion, and he seeks their conversion, inasmuch as the might even of His Majesty is based on repentance. They are warned to this effect: 'Shun evil-doing, that ye may escape destruction,' because His Majesty desires for all animate beings security, control over the passions, peace of mind, and joyousness.

'And this is the chiefest conquest, in His Majesty's opinion—the conquest by the Law of Piety. This also is that effected by His Majesty, both in his own dominions and in all the neighbouring realms, as far as six hundred leagues, even to where the Greek King named Antiochus dwells, and beyond that Antiochus to where dwell the four Kings severally named Ptolemy, Antigonus, Magas, and Alexander; and in the south the Kings of the Cholas, and Pândyas, and of Ceylon; and likewise here, in the King's dominions, among the Yonas, and Kambojas, in Nâbhaka of the Nâbhitis, among the Bhojas, and Pitinikas, among the Andhras and Pulindas, everywhere men follow the Law of Piety as proclaimed by His Majesty.

Even in those regions where the envoys of His Majesty do not penetrate, men now practise and will continue to practise the Law of Piety as soon as they hear the pious proclamation

of His Majesty issued in accordance with the Law of Piety. And the conquest which has thereby been everywhere effected —the conquest everywhere effected causes a feeling of delight. Delight is found in the conquests made by the Law. Nevertheless, that delight is only a small matter. His Majesty thinks nothing of much importance save what concerns the next world.

And for this purpose has this pious edict been written—to wit, that my sons and grandsons, as many as they may be, may not suppose it to be their duty to effect a new conquest; and that even when engaged in conquest by arms they may find pleasure in patience and gentleness, and may regard as the only true conquest that which is effected through the Law of Piety, which avails both for this world and the next. Let all their pleasure be the pleasure in exertion, which avails both for this world and the next.

APPENDIX IV

PROVINCIAL AND DISTRICT DARBARIS OF HAZARA.

No. in Provincial List.	*Name, Residence, and other Particulars of Darbaris.*	*Remarks.*
	PROVINCIAL DARBARIS (*As corrected up to November* 1, 1903).	
10	Nawab Sir Muhammad Akram Khan, Tanaoli, of Amb, K.C.S.I., son of Jahandad Khan ; year of birth, 1846.	Died in January, 1907.
11	Raja Jahandad Khan, Khan Bahadur, C.I.E., Gakhar, of Khanpur, son of Raja Haidar Bakhsh.	Died in November, 1906.
16	Raja Sher Ahmad Khan, son of Raja Firoz Khan, Gakhar, of Baghpur Dheri ; year of birth, 1860.	
17	Muhammad Husain Khan, son of Samundar Khan, Swathi, of Garhi Habibullah Khan ; year of birth, 1867.	
20	Sultan Barkat Khan, Bamba, of Boi, son of Rahmatullah ; year of birth, 1851.	
24	Ata Muhammad Khan, son of Abdul Rahman Khan, Tanaoli, Khan of Phulra ; year of birth, 1879.	
28	Khanizaman Khan, son of Mirzaman Khan, Utmanzai of Khalabat.	Died in 1905. Succeeded by his son, Muhammad Aman Khan.

DISTRICT DARBARIS.

10	Saiad Muhammad Khan, son of Ali Bahadur Khan, Karral of Dabran; year of birth, 1836.	
15	Sultan Muhammad Khan, son of Ata Muhammad Khan, Tanaoli, of Bir; year of birth, 1872.	
16	Kazi Fazl Ilahi, son of Kazi Faiz Alam, Awan, of Sikandarpur; year of birth, 1867.	
21	Dost Muhammad Khan, son of Nawab Khan, Tanaoli, of Shingri; year of birth, 1839.	
22	Shahdad Khan, son of Khudadad Khan, Jadun, of Banda Pir Khan; year of birth, 1872.	Died in 1906.
39	Gulam Haidar Khan, Swathi, of Dharial, son of Ata Muhammad Khan of Agror; year of birth, 1861.	
40	Ata Muhammad Khan, son of Hakim Khan, Dhund, of Lora; year of birth, 1846.	
58	Gulam Khan, son of Amir Khan, Swathi, of Nandihar, independent territory.	
67	Resaldar Abdulla Khan, son of Inayat-ullah Khan, Tanaoli, of Chamhad; year of birth, 1852.	
68	Akbar Khan, son of Ghafur Khan, Swathi, of Giddarpur; year of birth, 1841.	
69	Muhammad Khan, son of Khairullah Khan, Tanaoli, of Kuthiala; year of birth, 1866.	
70	Raja Muhammad Sarwar Khan, son of Muhammad Khan, Gakhar, of Khanpur; year of birth, 1869.	

APPENDIX IV—*continued.*

No. in Provincial List.	*Name, Residence, and other Particulars of Darbaris.*	*Remarks.*
89	Fakir Shah, son of Bahadur Shah, Saiad, of Kagan; year of birth, 1851.	
90	Satar Shah, son of Gulam Shah, Kureshi, of Palasi; year of birth, 1851.	
91	Fazl Shah, son of Mehtab Shah, Kureshi, of Palasi; year of birth, 1831.	
92	Muhammad Husain Khan, son of Faiz Talab Khan, Swathi, of Mansehra, year of birth, 1859.	
93	Ahmad Khan, son of Kaim Khan, Pani, of Panian; year of birth, 1818.	
96	Jit Singh, son of Nihal Singh, of Haripur; year of birth, 1863.	
107	Rahma-ullah Khan, son of Saifullah Khan, Kashmiri, of Haripur; year of birth, 1829.	
109	Lala Rocha Ram, son of Tara Singh, of Abbottabad; year of birth, 1844.	
112	Mazulla Khan, son of Abdulla Khan, Utmanzai, of Dragri.	
119	Ata Muhammad, son of Khair Muhammad, Gujar, of Dehdar; year of birth, 1846.	Died in 1906.
120	Mir Abdullah, son of Gulam Muhammad Khan, Gujar, of Kot Najibullah.	

APPENDIX V

REGULATIONS IN FORCE IN THE HAZARA DISTRICT (A.D. 1907) WITH REGARD TO CARRIAGE, COOLIES, ETC.

TRAVELLERS requiring carriage in the Hazara District, except at Nathia Gali and at Dunga Gali, must send written requisitions to the carriage contractor direct. In the case of Nathia Gali and Dunga Gali such requisitions should be forwarded to the Naib Tahsildar, Dunga Gali.

All such requisitions must show clearly the description of carriage required, the date, hour, and place at which it is required and the place to which it is required. Travellers must pay for carriage from the date it is supplied, whether they utilize it from that date or not. Half the hire must be paid in advance to the contractor.

When Government transport mules are required, requisitions should be sent to the Tahsildar, Abbottabad, and Naib Tahsildar, Dunga Gali.

All complaints should be addressed to the Deputy-Commissioner, Hazara District.

The authorized rates are as follows :

PER STAGE.

For whole District except Galis.		*For Galis.*
Camel	8 annas.	12 annas.
Mule or baggage pony	6 ,,	10 ,,
Coolie	4 ,,	6 ,,
Kahar or jampani	6 ,,	8 ,,
Pack bullock	4 ,,	6 ,,
Ekka or tumtum	1 rupee.	

The charge for bullock-carts is 8 annas per bullock per stage between Hassan Abdal and Haripur, and 12 annas per bullock; in other parts of the District.

Camels are procurable only in the Haripur Tahsil, and if required in other parts of the District they will have to be sent for from Haripur. They are not worked during July and August.

The following is a list of the authorized stages :

From Hassan Abdal to—

Haripur	2 stages.
Sultanpur	3 ,,
Abbottabad	4 ,,
Mansehra	5½ ,,
Garhi Habibullah Khan	7½ ,,
Domel	8½ ,,

From Mansehra to—	
Oghi	2 stages.
Baffa	1 stage.
Jaba	1 ,,
Balakot	2 stages.
Kagan	5 ,,
Chilas	11 ,,

From Abbottabad to—	
Dhamtaur	½ stage.
Bagnotar	1 ,,
Bara Gali	1½ stages.
Kalabagh	1¾ ,,
Nathia Gali	2 ,,
Dunga Gali	2 ,,
Ghora Dhaka	2½ ,,
Khanspur	2½ ,,
Changla Gali	3 ,,
Khaira Gali	3¼ ,,
Murree	4 ,,
Kalapani	1 stage.
Thandiani	1½ stages.
Kakul	$3\frac{9}{16}$ miles.

The following notice should be given in the case of each kind of carriage:

BULLOCK CARTS.

Demand.	*Notice.*
Up to 10	4 days.
,, 20	7 ,,
,, 40	10 ,,

EKKAS AND TUMTUMS.

10 or less	2 days.
20	4 ,,
40	7 ,,

COOLIES.

Up to 40	24 hours.
Above 40	2 days.

COOLIES IN THE GALIS.

10	2 days.
20	4 ,,
Above 20	7 ,,

MULES AT ABBOTTABAD, HARIPUR, AND MANSEHRA.

10	12 hours.
20	24 ,,
50	2 days.
100 or more	7 ,,

CAMELS AT ABBOTTABAD.

10	4 days.
20	7 ,,
40	10 ,,

For mules and camels for the Galis one day's extra notice is required.

APPENDIX VI

DEPUTY-COMMISSIONERS OF THE HAZARA DISTRICT FROM ANNEXATION UP TO A.D. 1907.

Name.	*From*	*To*
Major James Abbott	March, 1849	April, 1853
Major H. B. Edwardes	May, 1853	September, 1853
Captain J. R. Becher	October, 1853	19/4/1859
Major R. Adams	20/4/1859	28/2/1863
Major H. W. H. Coxe	1/3/1863	25/3/1865
Major A. Munro	25/3/1865	30/4/1866
Captain E. L. Ommanney	1/5/1866	11/3/1871
Major G. R. Shortt	17/3/1871	30/11/1872
Major J. Frizelle	1/12/1872	17/3/1873
Major W. G. Waterfield	18/3/1873	17/9/1875
Major T. J. C. Plowden	18/9/1875	26/10/1875
Lieut.-Colonel W. G. Waterfield ..	27/10/1875	5/12/1876
H. C. T. Robinson, Esq.	6/12/1876	12/12/1876
R. Udny, Esq.	13/12/1876	5/3/1877
Lieut.-Colonel W. G. Waterfield ..	6/3/1877	27/5/1877
R. Udny, Esq.	28/5/1877	30/10/1877
H. C. T. Robinson, Esq.	31/10/1877	16/11/1877
Lieut.-Colonel W. G. Waterfield ..	17/11/1877	8/1/1878
H. C. T. Robinson, Esq.	9/1/1878	29/1/1878
R. Udny, Esq.	30/1/1878	17/3/1878
Captain C. F. Massy	18/3/1878	8/4/1878
A. R. Bulman, Esq.	9/4/1878	12/12/1878
Major E. L. Ommanney	13/12/1878	7/4/1880
Major C. McNeile	8/4/1880	21/12/1882
Lieut.-Colonel E. G. G. Hastings ..	22/12/1882	5/10/1883
Major T. J. C. Plowden	6/10/1883	13/12/1883
Lieut.-Colonel E. G. G. Hastings ..	14/12/1883	17/3/1884
F. W. R. Fryer, Esq.	18/3/1884	30/7/1884
A. W. Christie, Esq.	31/7/1884	17/8/1884
R. C. Clarke, Esq.	18/8/1884	28/10/1884
F. W. R. Fryer, Esq.	29/10/1884	1/8/1886
S. S. Thorburn, Esq.	2/8/1886	18/11/1886
A. F. D. Cunningham, Esq. ..	19/11/1886	25/3/1887
S. S. Thorburn, Esq.	26/3/1887	23/9/1887
A. F. D. Cunningham, Esq. ..	24/9/1887	1/1/1890
Captain E. Inglis	2/1/1890	4/4/1890

Name.	*From*	*To*
A. F. D. Cunningham, Esq. ..	5/4/1890	11/2/1891
C. E. F. Bunbury, Esq.	12/2/1891	24/6/1891
A. F. D. Cunningham, Esq. ..	25/6/1891	1/4/1892
Captain E. Inglis	2/4/1892	20/5/1892
A. F. D. Cunningham, Esq. ..	21/5/1892	30/9/1892
Captain E. Inglis	1/10/1892	13/10/1892
A. F. D. Cunningham, Esq. ..	14/10/1892	17/4/1893
Lieut.-Colonel J. B. Hutchinson ..	18/4/1893	20/7/1893
A. F. D. Cunningham, Esq. ..	21/7/1893	29/3/1894
H. A. Casson, Esq.	30/3/1894	15/4/1894
C. E. F. Bunbury, Esq.	16/4/1894	5/1/1896
Lieut. C. B. Rawlinson	6/1/1896	9/2/1896
R. Love, Esq.	10/2/1896	9/4/1896
C. E. F. Bunbury, Esq.	10/4/1896	20/11/1896
A. B. Kettlewell, Esq.	21/11/1896	31/1/1897
Captain C. B. Rawlinson	1/2/1897	16/4/1897
W. R. H. Merk, Esq.	17/4/1897	6/5/1897
A. H. Grant, Esq.	7/5/1897	9/9/1897
Captain H. S. Fox-Strangways ..	10/9/1897	16/5/1898
R. A. Mant, Esq.	17/5/1898	12/6/1898
W. R. H. Merk, Esq.	13/6/1898	2/9/1898
R. A. Mant, Esq.	3/9/1898	25/11/1898
W. R. H. Merk, Esq.	26/11/1898	31/5/1899
Captain C. B. Rawlinson	1/6/1899	20/7/1899
W. R. H. Merk, Esq.	21/7/1899	23/10/1899
T. Millar, Esq.	24/10/1899	19/1/1900
Lieut.-Colonel H. P. P. Leigh ..	20/1/1900	13/5/1900
Captain C. P. Down	14/5/1900	17/7/1900
Lieut.-Colonel H. P. P. Leigh ..	18/7/1900	29/1/1901
Captain D. B. Blakeway	30/1/1901	22/10/1901
Captain C. P. Thompson	23/10/1901	14/3/1905
P. J. G. Pipon, Esq.	15/3/1905	27/6/1905
G. C. L. Howell, Esq.	28/6/1905	26/11/1905
J. S. Donald, Esq.	27/11/1905	

APPENDIX VII

STATISTICAL TABLES IN VOLUME B.

I. Development.
II. Temperature.
III. Annual Rainfall.
IV. Monthly Rainfall at Head-quarters.
V. Seasonal Rainfall al Tahsil Head-quarters.
VI. Distribution of Population.
VII. Population of Towns.
VIII. Migration.
IX. Immigration by Caste.
X. Age, Sex, and Civil Condition by Religions.
XI. Births and Deaths.
XII. Monthly Deaths from All Causes and from Fever.
XIII. Births and Deaths in Towns.
XIV. Infirmities.
XV. Tribes and Castes.
XVI. Religions.
XVII. Occupations.
XVIII. Surveyed and Assessed Area.
XIX. Acres under Crops.
XX. Takavi.
XXI. Sales and Mortgages of Land.
XXII. Agricultural Stock.
XXIII. Horse and Mule Breeding.
XXIV. Canal Irrigation.
XXV. Price of Labour.
XXVI. Retail Prices.
XXVII. Forests.

SELECTED TABLES

TABLE I.

DEVELOPMENT (FEUDATORY

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
DETAILS.	1853-54.	1858-59.	1863-64.	1868-69.	1873-74.	1878-79.
Population	—*	296,364	296,364	343,929	343,929	343,929
Cultivated acres ..	—	—	—	211,381	381,107	381,107
Irrigated acres ..	—	—	—	32,690	36,380	36,380
Assessed land revenue—rupees	—	—	—	2,13,506	3,11,188	3,06,305
Number of kine ..	—	—	—	90,000	189,952	77,364
Number of sheep and goats	—	—	—	210,000	144,215	99,915
Number of camels ..	—	—	—	75	353	208
Miles of metalled road	—	—	— }	384	280	676
Miles of unmetalled road	—	—	— }			
Miles of railway ..	—	—	—	—	—	—
Police staff	—	—	473	548	564	508
Prisoners convicted ..	215	866	1,429	737	1,473	1,696
Civil suits—number ..	144	969	1,591	902	1,703	3,137
Civil suits—value in rupees	11,580	29,591	47,877	44,027	76,070	1,30,218
Municipalities—number	—	—	—	—	2	4
Municipalities—income in rupees	—	—	—	3,904	7,342	14,080
Dispensaries—number of	—	—	—	2	2	2
Dispensaries—patients	—	—	—	16,652	13,728	18,976
Schools—number of ..	—	—	1	3	19	18
Schools—scholars ..	—	—	85	126	884	884

* These figures are exaggerated.

STATES EXCLUDED).

8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1883–84.	1888–89.	1893–94.	1898–99.	1900–01.	1905–06.	REMARKS.
383,031	383,031	483,903	483,903	528,666	528,666	In the Feudatory States the development of population is shown by the following figures :
381,107	426,695	429,477	428,720	*631,238	430,267	
36,380	41,399	40,925	43,040	64,936	41,531	
3,05,374	3,07,485	3,06,507	3,08,390	4,75,203	4,83,869	(see figures below)
162,151	217,543	89,482	107,379	107,379	76,774	
185,599	194,061	217,479	290,692	290,692	246,779	
286	407	531	721	721	875	
665	1000	{ 27	44	46	80¼	
		{ 1,250	391	405	403	
—	—	—	—	—	—	
513	487	499	492	648	491	
8,318	4,108	2,755	4,045	5,633	3,078	
†	4,893	5,726	6,830	7,323	5,869	
—	5,65,767	3,37,321	4,65,846	4,70,540	5,89,389	
4	4	4	4	4	4	
18,225	24,309	31,657	35,814	39,279	71,442	
3	3	3	3	4	6	
38,599	39,203	43,259	62,519	59,781	86,204	
27	27	33	33	33	43	
1,541	1,614	2,148	2,081	2,725	3,272	

	1881.	1891.	1901.
Amb	19,727	26,290	24,956
Phulra	4,317	6,095	6,666
Total	24,044	32,385	31,622

† Not available, as the statements have been destroyed.

TABLE VI.

DISTRIBUTION OF

1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
		Total Square Miles.	Cultivated Square Miles.	Square Miles under Matured Crops (10 Years' Average).	Total Population.			Urban Popula	
					Total.	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Total.*	*Males.*
District, exclusive of Feudatory States	1881 ..	2,835	595	582	383,031	205,203	177,828	18,790	11,086
	1891 ..	2,835	672	726	483,903	260,445	223,858	28,317	18,491
	1901 ..	2,858	679	693	528,666	281,704	246,962	24,485	14,435
District, inclusive of Feudatory States	1881 ..	3,039	—	—	407,075	218,616	188,459	18,790	11,086
	1891 ..	3,039	—	—	516,288	278,265	238,023	28,317	18,491
	1901 ..	3,062	—	—	568,288	299,708	260,580	24,485	14,435
Tahsils (1901)	Abbottabad	717	202	212	194,632	104,256	90,376	11,878	7,622
	Haripur ..	667	232	210	151,638	79,945	71,693	5,578	3,039
	Mansehra	1,474	245	271	182,396	97,503	84,893	7,029	3,774
Feudatory States (1901)	Amb ..	204	—	—	24,956	14,198	10,758	—	—
	Phulra ..		—	—	6,666	3,806	2,860	—	—

Note.—The figures in column 3 are based on statistics furnished by the Survey Department in Land Revenue Reports.

The figures of the other columns are taken from Tables I. and III. of the Census Reports of

		1881.	1891.	1901.
Percentage of total population of District (including Feudatory States) which lives in villages	Persons	95·9	94·1	95·4
	Males	94·6	92·7	94·9
	Females	95·7	95·6	95·9
Average population per village		449·1	488·8	563·3
Average population per village and town		470·0	517·0	588·1
Number of villages per 100 square miles		28·7	33·0	31·5

* These figures are inaccurate, owing to the exaggeration in the returns for the cultivated area the Second Regular Settlement, the densities of the total and rural population are 787 and 750,

PULATION.

10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
ION.	RURAL POPULATION.			TOWNS AND VILLAGES.								
Females.	*Total.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Over 10,000 Souls.*	*5,000 to 10,000.*	*3,000 to 5,000.*	*2,000 to 3,000.*	*1,000 to 2,000.*	*500 to 1,000.*	*Under 500.*	*Total.*	REMARKS.
,704	364,241	194,117	170,124	—	3	9	9	52	142	600	815	Where columns 3 and 4 are left blank it is because returns for Feudatory States are not available.
,826	455,586	241,554	214,032	2	4	10	17	72	178	653	936	
,050	504,181	267,269	236,912	1	5	36		82	192	583	899	
,704	388,285	207,530	180,755	—	3	9	9	52	145	965	1,183	
,826	487,971	259,774	228,197	2	4	10	17	72	181	1,002	1,288	
,050	535,803	285,273	250,530	1	5	36		8	193	950	1,268	
,256	182,754	96,634	86,120	—	1	17		30	60	250	358	
,539	146,060	76,906	69,154	—	2	5		19	71	213	310	
,255	175,367	93,729	81,638	1	2	14		33	61	120	231	
—	24,956	14,198	10,758	—	—	—		1	—	333	334	
—	6,666	3,806	2,860	—	—	—		—	1	40	41	

03; the figures in columns 3 and 4 for the District and all tahsil areas are taken from the
91 and 1901 and I. and XVIII. of the Census Report of 1881.

			1881.	1891.	1901.
Density per square mile of area	Total (including Feudatory States)	Total population	134·0	169·9	185·6
		Rural	127·8	160·6	175·0
	Total (excluding Feudatory States)	Total population	135·1	170·7	185·0
		Rural	128·4	160·7	176·4
	Cultivated (excluding Feudatory States)	Total	588·3	720·1	*536·2
		Rural	559·4	680·0	*511·3
Number of persons per occupied house ..		Villages	6·1	6·4	5·6
		Towns	5·7	6·6	5·3
Percentage of increase (+) or decrease (−) on previous census ..			—	+26·3	+7.2

1900–1901 (*Vide* Table I.). As worked out on the cultivated area according to the returns of
spectively.

TABLE X.

AGE, SEX, AND CIVIL CONDITION BY

1			2	3	4	5	6	7
PARTICULARS.			TOTAL.			HINDUS.		
			Single.	*Married.*	*Widowed.*	*Single.*	*Married.*	*Widowed.*
1881			205,418	171,246	30,411	9,183	8,299	2,361
1891			271,389	211,649	33,250	10,927	10,483	2,573
DISTRIBUTION BY SEXES AND AGES IN 1901.	Persons ..	0—5 ..	85,033	48	2	2,779	5	—
		5—10 ..	91,830	438	11	2,769	39	1
		10—15 ..	65,910	4,697	97	2,059	322	9
		15—20 ..	27,362	18,357	358	1,059	963	31
		20—25 ..	11,171	28,253	965	725	1,558	88
		25—30 ..	6,417	33,029	1,586	538	1,625	154
		30—35 ..	3,857	43,970	3,373	317	1,661	223
		35—40 ..	1,068	23,769	2,335	144	1,091	225
		40—45 ..	1,058	27,302	5,256	133	952	336
		45—50 ..	325	11,782	2,578	58	496	221
		50—55 ..	391	15,744	5,638	62	511	361
		55—60 ..	90	4,268	1,513	17	157	116
		60 and over ..	465	16,597	13,345	54	490	682
		Total ..	294,977	228,254	37,057	10,714	9,870	2,447
	Males ..	0—5 ..	42,789	26	1	1,417	4	—
		5—10 ..	48,736	105	4	1,494	7	1
		10—15 ..	39,995	772	37	1,371	50	—
		15—20 ..	21,211	3,648	128	963	253	8
		20—25 ..	10,104	8,629	375	710	621	42
		25—30 ..	6,074	13,959	741	534	886	77
		30—35 ..	3,586	21,690	1,401	312	967	94
		35—40 ..	983	13,555	945	143	714	93
		40—45 ..	917	15,632	1,578	127	590	91
		45—50 ..	274	7,415	838	57	362	83
		50—55 ..	340	10,399	1,590	61	377	100
		55—60 ..	73	2,940	488	16	124	36
		60 and over ..	371	12,814	4,545	49	406	264
		Total ..	175,453	111,584	37,057	7,254	5,361	889
	Females ..	0—5 ..	42,244	22	1	1,362	1	—
		5—10 ..	43,094	333	7	1,275	32	—
		10—15 ..	25,915	3,925	60	688	272	9
		15—20 ..	6,151	14,709	230	96	710	23
		20—25 ..	1,067	19,624	590	15	937	46
		25—30 ..	343	19,070	845	4	739	77
		30—35 ..	271	22,280	1,972	5	694	129
		35—40 ..	85	10,214	1,390	1	377	132
		40—45 ..	141	11,670	3,678	6	362	245
		45—50 ..	51	4,367	1,740	1	134	138
		50—55 ..	51	5,345	4,048	1	134	261
		55—60 ..	17	1,328	1,025	1	33	80
		60 and over ..	94	3,783	8,800	5	84	418
		Total ..	119,524	116,670	24,386	3,460	4,509	1,558

RELIGIONS (INCLUDING FEUDATORY STATES).

8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Sikhs.			Jains.			Muhammadans.			Christians.		
Single.	*Married.*	*Widowed.*	*Single.*	*Married.*	*Widowed.*	*Single.*	*Married.*	*Widowed.*	*Single.*	*Married.*	*Widowed.*
669	596	116	—	—	—	195,519	162,313	27,927	47	36	7
1,516	1,835	258	1	2	—	258,797	199,243	30,413	146	84	6
479	1	—	—	—	—	81,767	42	2	8	—	—
507	5	1	—	—	—	88,547	394	9	7	—	—
397	84	—	—	—	—	63,453	4,291	88	1	—	—
180	187	4	—	—	—	26,117	17,205	323	6	2	—
129	253	13	—	—	—	10,302	26,439	864	15	3	—
73	260	15	—	—	—	5,802	31,138	1,417	4	6	—
39	255	32	—	—	—	3,496	42,046	3,118	5	8	—
14	194	34	—	—	—	906	22,477	2,076	4	7	—
17	190	62	—	—	—	908	26,152	4,856	—	8	2
3	93	41	—	—	—	262	11,187	2,316	2	6	—
3	89	67	—	—	—	325	15,143	5,210	1	1	—
2	44	25	—	—	—	71	4,065	1,371	—	2	1
10	114	120	—	—	—	400	15,992	12,543	1	1	—
1,853	1,769	414	—	—	—	282,356	216,571	34,193	54	44	3
249	—	—	—	—	—	41,119	22	1	4	—	—
310	1	1	—	—	—	46,930	97	2	2	—	—
261	20	—	—	—	—	38,362	702	37	1	—	—
170	59	2	—	—	—	20,077	3,336	118	1	—	—
128	99	4	—	—	—	9,254	7,908	329	12	1	—
72	143	9	—	—	—	5,466	12,928	655	2	2	—
39	155	8	—	—	—	3,230	20,565	1,299	5	3	—
14	143	14	—	—	—	824	12,693	838	2	5	—
16	117	20	—	—	—	774	14,921	1,465	—	4	2
3	61	13	—	—	—	212	6,988	742	2	4	—
3	64	23	—	—	—	275	9,957	1,467	1	1	—
2	35	13	—	—	—	55	2,779	439	—	2	—
10	90	45	—	—	—	311	12,317	4,236	1	1	—
1,277	987	152	—	—	—	166,889	105,213	11,628	33	23	2
23	1	—	—	—	—	40,648	20	1	4	—	—
19	4	—	—	—	—	41,617	297	7	5	—	—
136	4	—	—	—	—	25,091	3,589	51	—	—	—
10	1	2	—	—	—	6,640	13,869	205	5	2	—
1	154	9	—	—	—	1,048	18,531	535	3	2	—
1	117	6	—	—	—	336	18,210	762	2	4	—
—	100	24	—	—	—	266	12,481	1,819	—	5	—
—	51	20	—	—	—	82	9,784	1,238	2	2	—
1	73	42	—	—	—	134	11,231	3,391	—	4	—
—	32	28	—	—	—	50	4,199	1,574	—	2	—
—	25	44	—	—	—	50	5,186	3,743	—	—	—
—	9	12	—	—	—	16	1,286	932	—	—	1
—	24	75	—	—	—	89	3,675	8,307	—	—	—
576	782	262	—	—	—	115,467	111,358	22,565	21	21	1

TABLE XV.

TRIBES AND CASTES (INCLUDING FEUDATORY STATES).

Omitting castes whose numbers are below 500, and, in the details by religion in 1881 and 1901, the religion with returns below 10.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Caste or Tribe and Religion.	Totals.					Tahsils and States, 1901 (Persons).				
	1881.	1891.	1901.			*Abbottabad.*	*Haripur.*	*Mansehra.*	*Amb.*	*Phulra.*
	Persons.	*Persons.*	*Persons.*	*Males.*	*Females.*					
Arora	2,455	3,554	3,806	2,192	1,614	535	1,685	1,212	372	2
Hindus	2,406	—	3,256	1,877	1,379	511	1,291	1,080	372	2
Sikhs	49	—	550	315	235	24	394	132	—	—
Awan, Muhammadans.. ..	65,606	82,897	*90,474	46,713	43,761	36,996	31,251	21,087	688	452
Brahmin	4,662	4,916	5,032	2,866	2,160	3,518	993	462	52	7
Hindus	4,003	—	3,347	1,896	1,451	2,099	866	323	52	7
Sikhs	659	—	1,685	970	715	1,419	127	139	—	—
Chamar	2,291	904	556	286	270	212	340	4	—	—
Hindus	46	—	19	14	5	19	—	—	—	—
Sikhs	—	—	10	5	5	7	—	3	—	—
Muhammadans	2,245	—	527	267	26	186	340	1	—	—
Darzi, Muhammadans.. ..	1,076	1,165	1,744	895	84	822	619	272	15	16
Dhobi, "	2,694	3,446	3,678	2,002	1,676	876	1,613	1,043	121	25
Hindus	95	—	104	40	64	103	1	—	—	—
Muhammadans	2,599	—	3,574	1,962	1,612	773	1,612	1,043	121	25

DHUND, Muhammadans ..	20,085	29,820	25,231	13,446	11,787	21,858	2,336	1,028	—	11
GAKHAR, ,, ...	4,613	5,110	4,445	2,322	2,123	1,627	1,747	884	174	13
GUJAR, ,, ...	60,948	83,167	91,670	49,255	42,415	18,725	20,016	49,229	3,011	689
GURKHA, Hindus	760	2,039	2,404	1,667	737	2,385	19	—	—	—
JAT	515	1,239	576	409	167	246	24	306	—	—
Hindus	56	—	16	15	1	13	—	3	—	—
Sikhs	293	—	107	101	6	96	3	8	—	—
Muhammadans	166	—	453	293	160	137	21	295	—	—
JHINWAR	1,328	1,729	1,552	937	615	392	985	175	—	—
Hindus	212	—	286	219	67	140	47	99	—	—
Sikhs	6	—	15	10	5	7	8	—	—	—
Muhammadans	1,110	—	1,251	708	543	245	930	76	—	—
JULAHA, Muhammadans ..	11,885	12,648	16,018	8,722	7,296	5,141	7,576	2,838	354	109
KASHMIRI ,, ...	13,997	16,138	15,023	7,781	7,242	3,995	2,015	8,931	20	62
KARRAL ,, ...	10,288	15,285	15,733	8,475	7,258	15,519	—	214	—	—
KHATTAR ,, ...	600	463	679	364	315	238	427	14	—	—
KHATRI	10,267	10,924	12,790	7,313	5,477	4,933	5,071	2,634	63	89
Hindus	10,045	—	11,473	6,516	4,957	4,623	4,104	2,594	63	89
Sikhs	222	—	1,317	797	520	310	967	40	—	—
KHOJA, Muhammadans ..	9	948	2,150	1,095	1,055	914	469	755	12	—
KONSHI ,, ...	—	—	1,393	713	680	—	—	1,393	—	—
KUMHAR ,, ...	3,687	4,758	5,101	2,745	2,356	1,826	2,320	825	82	48

* This is 1,000 less than the figures given in the Census Report, as this is the correct population of Awans by tahsil vernacular tabulation sheets.

TABLE XV.—*continued.*

TRIBES AND CASTES.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Totals.					Tahsils and States, 1901 (Persons).				
Caste or Tribe and Religion.	1881.	1891.	1901.							
	Persons.	*Persons.*	*Persons.*	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Abbott-abad.*	*Haripur.*	*Man-sehra.*	*Amb.*	*Phulra.*
Lohar, Muhammadans ..	5,896	8,217	8,817	4,728	4,089	2,793	2,626	2,990	361	147
Malliar ,, ...	*5,527	6,305	7,770	4,039	3,731	1,374	5,535	756	85	20
Mallah ,, ...	532	5,539	649	358	291	—	309	22	318	—
Mirasi ,, ...	1,856	2,017	2,225	1,173	1,052	758	822	509	50	86
Mishwani ,, ...	—	—	3,992	2,062	1,930	5	3,919	24	39	5
Mochi ,, ...	4,285	7,368	9,210	4,990	4,220	3,293	3,757	1,837	227	96
Moghal ,, ...	5,297	7,157	8,311	4,586	3,725	3,584	2,506	2,179	40	2
Musalli ,, ...	—	—	3,137	1,706	1,431	655	1,417	944	62	59
Nai	4,218	5,644	6,543	3,561	2,982	1,742	2,449	2,012	226	114
Hindus	28	—	18	13	5	17	—	1	—	—
Muhammadans	4,190	—	6,525	3,548	2,977	1,725	2,449	2,011	226	114

PATHAN, Muhammadans ..	64,695	76,225	52,127	28,044	24,083	21,203	19,312	9,831	1,505	276
QASSAB ,, ...	412	561	571	301	270	24	513	34	—	—
QURESHI ,, ...	—	—	3,135	1,557	1,578	1,690	—	1,388	—	57
RAJPUT ,, ...	†4,772	7,412	4,082	2,415	1,667	1,364	1,476	1,225	—	17
SARARA ,, ...	4,425	—	7,332	4,027	3,305	6,880	—	452	—	—
SWATHI ,, ...	—	—	33,433	17,539	15,894	1,022	413	33,433	121	—
SAIAD ,, ...	15,235	20,320	22,696	11,896	10,800	6,630	5,742	9,029	847	448
SHEKH ,, ...	5,098	7,104	4,189	2,263	1,926	1,465	1,600	1,065	31	28
SUNAR ,, ...	1,320	1,389	1,596	863	733	555	602	416	23	—
Hindus	810	—	481	240	241	92	273	104	12	—
Sikhs	49	—	216	113	103	76	105	35	—	—
Muhammedans	461	—	899	510	389	387	224	277	11	—
TANAOLI, Muhammadans ..	39,981	54,425	58,703	31,476	27,227	13,271	11,478	14,850	15,554	3,550
TARKHAN	8,271	9,522	10,684	5,855	4,829	3,637	4,280	2,307	291	169
Hindus	22	—	46	34	12	45	—	1	—	—
Sikhs	30	—	35	29	6	33	—	2	—	—
Muhammadans	8,219	—	10,603	5,792	4,811	3,559	4,280	2,304	291	169
TELI, Muhammadans	2,480	2,986	3,556	1,840	1,716	1,194	1,661	629	57	15
TURK ,, ...	2,996	3,821	2,379	1,329	1,050	423	119	1,656	178	3
ULEMA ,, ...	574	449	1,384	717	667	—	1,288	96	—	—

* Shown as Baghban in 1881 and as Mali in 1891.
† Includes 138 Hindus.

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TABLE XV.—*continued.*

SUPPLEMENT—PATHAN SUBDIVISIONS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Name of Subdivision.	Totals, 1901.			Tahsils and States, 1901 (Persons).				
	Persons.	*Males.*	*Females.*	*Abbottabad.*	*Haripur.*	*Mansehra.*	*Amb.*	*Phulra.*
Akazai	1,029	578	451	10	277	647	62	33
Akhunkhel	1,641	1,101	540	890	185	566	—	—
Allah Dadi	610	323	287	—	593	1	16	—
Bangash..	605	332	273	—	—	439	166	—
Chigharzai	782	433	349	17	9	629	121	6
Dilazak	2,534	1,189	1,345	758	1,605	107	25	39
Jadun	11,590	6,251	5,339	7,683	3,378	488	6	25
Kakar	872	443	429	—	849	9	14	—
Lodi	1,482	711	771	823	405	242	—	12
Sulemani	1,410	755	655	54	978	271	62	45
Tarin	2,006	902	1,104	249	1,689	42	18	8
Utmanzai	2,564	1,646	918	893	1,401	232	29	9
Yusafzai	578	377	201	27	445	84	2	—
Miscellaneous	9,428	4,772	4,656	6,398	13	2,358	617	42

Note.—Under 'Miscellaneous' a large number of heterogeneous clans have been included, either because they are very small in number or because the name, as given in the census returns, could not be identified with certainty.

TABLE XVI.—RELIGIONS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Total District (including Feudatory States).								
	Persons.			*Males.*			*Females.*		
	1881.	1891.	1901.	1881.	1891.	1901.	1881.	1891.	1901.
Persons	407,075	516,288	560,288	—	—	—	—	—	—
Males	—	—	—	218,616	278,265	299,708	—	—	—
Females	—	—	—	—	—	—	188,459	238,023	260,580
Hindus	19,843	23,983	23,031	11,678	14,839	13,504	8,165	9,144	9,527
Sikhs	1,381	3,609	4,036	881	2,665	2,416	500	944	1,620
Jains	—	3	—	—	3	—	—	—	—
Zoroastrians	—	4	—	—	4	—	—	—	—
Muhammadans	385,759	488,453	533,120	206,004	260,566	283,730	179,750	227,887	249,390
Native Christians	6	26	17	4	21	11	2	5	6
European and Eurasian Christians ..	84	210	84	48	167	47	36	43	37
Others and unspecified	2	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	—

	Tahsils and States, 1901.						Distribution of every 10,000 of Population by Religion and Sex.					
	Tahsils.				*States.*		*Total.*		*Urban.*		*Rural.*	
	Abbott-abad.	*Haripur.*	*Man-sehra.*	*Total District.*	*Amb.*	*Phulra.*	1901.	1881.	1901.	1881.	1901.	1881.
Persons	194,632	151,638	182,396	528,666	24,956	6,666	—	—	—	—	—	—
Males	104,256	79,945	97,503	281,704	14,198	3,806	5,349	5,370	5,895	5,900	5,324	5,345
Females	90,376	71,693	48,893	246,962	10,758	2,860	4,651	4,630	4,105	4,100	4,676	4,655
Hindus	10,903	7,120	4,407	22,430	503	98	411	487	3,179	3,248	285	354
Sikhs	1,989	1,620	427	4,036	—	—	72	34	609	186	48	27
Muhammadans	181,640	142,897	177,562	502,099	24,453	6,568	9,515	9,476	6,175	6,522	9,667	9,619
Native Christians	17	—	—	17	—	— }						
European and Eurasian Christians	83	1	—	84	—	— }	2	3	38	44	—	—
	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22

TABLE XVII.

OCCUPATIONS (INCLUDING FEUDATORY STATES).

1	2	3	4	5
No. of Sub-Order in Census Report.	Occupations.	Actual Workers.		Dependents.
		Males.	*Females.*	*Both Sexes.*
1	Civil Service of the State	622	—	1,078
2	Service of Local and Municipal Bodies	138	—	366
3	Village Service	473	115	1,073
4	Army	2,510	—	2,062
6	Civil Officers of Native States ..	200	200	144
8	Stock Breeding and Dealing ..	1,730	405	1,332
9	Training and Care of Animals ..	8	1	29
10	Landholders and Tenants ..	106,893	11,604	269,441
11	Agricultural Labourers	5,379	599	9,234
12	Growers of Special Products ..	83	18	175
13	Agricultural Training and Supervision and Forests	70	—	99
14	Personal and Domestic Services ..	6,770	1,388	10,112
15	Non-domestic Entertainment ..	1	—	5
16	Sanitation	367	112	439
17	Provision of Animal Foods ..	376	99	639
18	Provision of Vegetable Foods ..	4,709	1,340	7,947
19	Provision of Drink, Condiments, and Stimulants	343	102	625
20	Lighting	37	1	58
21	Fuel and Forage	900	485	1,318
22	Building Materials	114	35	138
23	Artificers in Building	1,032	659	1,014
25	Cart, Carriages, etc.	1	—	4
28	Books and Prints	23	—	51
29	Watches, Clocks, and Scientific Instruments	2	—	3
30	Carving and Engraving	16	—	29
33	Bangles, Necklaces, Beads, Sacred Threads, etc.	78	36	107
34	Furniture	—	—	2
35	Harness	4	—	5
36	Tools and Machinery	2,432	755	4,728
37	Arms and Ammunition	7	—	15
38	Wool and Fur	372	212	510
39	Silk	25	76	71
40	Cotton	5,015	828	10,859
41	Jute, Hemp, Flax, Coir, etc. ..	266	162	113

TABLE XVII.—*continued.*

OCCUPATIONS (INCLUDING FEUDATORY STATES).

1	2	3	4	5
No. of Sub-Order in Census Report.	Occupations.	Actual Workers.		Dependents.
		Males.	*Females.*	*Both Sexes.*
42	Dress	1,026	321	1,224
43	Gold, Silver, and Precious Stones	707	243	1,179
44	Brass, Copper, and Bell-metal ..	15	1	38
45	Tin, Zinc, Quicksilver, and Lead..	21	8	37
46	Iron and Steel	1,514	891	2,605
48	Earthen- and Stone-ware	1,091	189	2,089
49	Wood and Bamboos	948	129	1,593
50	Caneworks, Matting, and Leaves, etc.	146	20	426
52	Drugs, Dyes, Pigments, etc. ..	238	36	589
53	Leather, Horn, and Bones ..	2,990	204	6,017
54	Money and Securities	330	36	858
55	General Merchandise	482	160	404
56	Dealing unspecified	1,988	774	2,779
57	Middlemen, Brokers, and Agents..	120	77	150
58	Railway	3	—	9
59	Road	1,862	752	3,018
60	Water	80	5	231
61	Messages	73	3	91
62	Storage and Weighing	81	37	146
63	Religion	2,222	111	4,889
64	Education	840	2	864
65	Literature	77	—	131
66	Law	77	12	130
67	Medicine	67	81	177
68	Engineering and Survey	24	—	33
71	Music, Acting, Dancing, etc. ..	373	26	897
72	Sport	4	4	5
73	Games and Exhibitions	2	—	5
74	Earthwork, etc.	46	—	21
75	General Labour	2,287	1,617	3,328
76	Indefinite	547	434	994
77	Disreputable	—	26	9
78	Property and Alms	6,188	1,796	5,707
79	At the State Expense	324	125	748

TABLE III.

ANNUAL RAINFALL (IN INCHES) FOR THE AGRICULTURAL YEAR ENDING MAY 31.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
RAIN-GAUGE STATION.	AVERAGE.	1885–86.	1886–87.	1887–88.	1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.	1893–94.	1894–95.
Abbottabad	45·16	49·1	29·2	41·4	44·0	36·00	61·84	33·09	57·90	78·69	63·08
Mansehra	35·03	41·9	26·6	23·2	35·5	36·05	62·27	26·67	39·93	51·72	39·94
Haripur	28·67	31·2	15·9	20·9	27·9	21·33	40·20	14·69	35·39	46·78	31·69
Average for District	36·29	40·7	23·9	28·5	35·8	31·13	54·77	24·82	44·41	59·06	44·90

	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
	1895–96	1896–97.	1897–98.	1898–99.	1899–00.	1900–01.	1901–02.	1902–03.	1903–04.	1904–05.	1905–06.
Abbottabad	39·72	47·68	42·36	41·59	42·80	60·88	33·09	41·69	34·87	52·70	65·72
Mansehra	30·67	37·31	39·36	14·79	34·47	52·30	24·32	37·84	29·88	37·74	36·63
Haripur	28·51	36·19	31·30	25·80	31·23	41·58	28·35	27·26	28·13	39·45	37·23
Average for District	32·97	40·39	37·67	34·06	36·17	51·59	28·59	35·59	30·96	43·29	46·53

TABLE XVIII.

SURVEYED AND ASSESSED AREA (IN ACRES) FOR DISTRICT (EXCLUDING FEUDATORY STATES) AND TAHSILS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
District or Tahsil.	Year.	Total Area, including Government Forests.	Government Forests.	Total Area available for Cultivation not yet Cultivated.		Number of Wells in Use.	Number of *Dhenklis* and *Jhalars* in Use.	Cultivated.				Total Assessment, including that of *Muafis* and *Jagirs* (in Rupees).
				Government Waste.	*Other.*			*Chahi, including Jhalari and Dhenkli Abi.*	*Abi.*	*Barani.*	*Total Cultivated Area.*	
District ..	1873-74	1,514,530	149,961	—	22,423	111	1	365	35,919	354,456	390,740	3,08,394
	1901-02	1,817,063	149,961	11	368,748	266	68	851	42,654	391,534	435,039	3,16,184
	1905-06	1,782,606	157,723	—	962,225	343	69	978	40,553	388,736	430,267	5,04,202
Tahsil Abbottabad	1873-74	457,001	47,342	—	5,947	—	—	—	5,488	108,259	113,747	82,908
	1901-02	458,796	47,342	7	7,146	—	—	—	7,426	121,870	129,296	83,241
	1905-06	441,499	47,584	—	189,381	—	—	—	6,277	125,308	131,585	1,41,095
,, Haripur	1873-74	426,376	24,677	—	11,973	111	1	365	19,451	116,635	136,451	1,47,370
	1901-02	426,374	24,677	4	7,807	265	68	848	20,963	127,114	148,925	1,47,230
	1905-06	418,594	25,387	—	172,755	341	67	975	20,550	128,359	149,884	2,02,961
,, Mansehra	1873-74	931,153	77,942	—	4,503	—	—	—	10,980	129,562	140,542	78,116
	1901-02	931,893	77,942	—	353,795	1	—	3	14,265	142,550	156,818	85,713
	1905-06	922,513	84,752	—	600,089	2	2	3	13,726	135,069	148,798	160,146

TABLE XXVII.

FORESTS.

(Area given in Acres.)

1	2	3	4	5
	Under Forest Department.	Under District Management.	Under Military Department.	Total.
Reserved Forests.				
Tahsil Abbottabad	45,593	799	1,039	47,431
,, Haripur	25,386	—	—	25,386
,, Mansehra	78,742	5,996	22	84,760
Total Reserved Forests ..	149,721	6,795	1,061	157,577
Unclassed Forests.				
Tahsil Abbottabad	—	309	498	807
,, Haripur	—	584	—	584
Total Unclassed Forests ..	—	893	498	1,391

Note.—There are no forests under the Municipal Committees in this District.

TABLE XXIX.

REST-HOUSES OF ALL DEPARTMENTS IN THE HAZARA DISTRICT, AND WITHIN A DISTANCE OF ABOUT SIX MILES OUTSIDE THE DISTRICT BOUNDARIES.

1	2	3	4	5
No.	Department to which the Rest-House Belongs.	Name of Place.	Accommodation.	Remarks.
1	Forest	Malkandi ..	Upper story: three rooms, 15½ feet by 14 feet each; two bath-rooms; one godown; one loft. Lower story: three servants' rooms; one godown; one long stable outside (stone, with shingle roof).	In the Kagan valley above Kawai. In 1905 a land-slip on the opposite bank of the Kunhar drove the river against the foundations of the bungalow and rendered it unsafe. It was dismantled and is being re-built at a higher elevation.
2	Police	Balakot ..	One room, 24 feet by 14 feet; two other rooms; one bath-room (pucca, with mud roof).	Attached to police-station. For Military Works rest-house see No. 40.
3	Civil	Shinkiari ..	Two rooms, 15 feet by 12 feet each; one room, 18 feet by 15 feet; one pantry, 10 feet by 8 feet; two bath-rooms, 8 feet by 8 feet; one veranda.	Built in 1905.
4	Police	,, ..	One room, 18 feet by 14 feet; and one bath-room.	Part of police-station.

TABLE XXIX.—*continued.*

REST-HOUSES OF ALL DEPARTMENTS IN THE HAZARA DISTRICT, AND WITHIN A DISTANCE OF ABOUT SIX MILES OUTSIDE THE DISTRICT BOUNDARIES.

1	2	3	4	5
No.	Department to which the Rest-House Belongs.	Name of Place.	Accommodation.	Remarks.
5	Border Military Police	Oghi ..	One main room, 20 feet by 20 feet; one dressing-room, 26 feet by 10 feet; one bath-room (pucca, with mud roof); upper story of post, 16½ feet by 10 feet.	In fort.
6	Civil	,, ..	Two rooms, 18 feet by 15 feet each; one dressing-room, 14½ feet by 8¾ feet; one lamp-room, 8 feet by 6¾ feet; two bath-rooms—one 8 feet by 6½ feet, one 8¼ feet by 7½ feet.	Occupied by the Commandant, Border Military Police, when a European.
7	,, ..	,, ..	Two rooms, 18 feet by 14 feet each; one go-down, 14½ feet by 8 feet; two bath-rooms, 8 feet by 7 feet; one dressing-room, 8 feet by 5 feet; two verandas.	The old dak bungalow.
8	,, ...	Garhi Habibullah Khan	Two rooms, 16 feet by 14 feet each; two dressing-rooms; two bath-rooms (pucca, with shingle roof).	Dak bungalow.
9	District	Mansehra ..	One room, 16 feet by 16 feet, in front corner of *serai* (kachcha, with mud roof).	Attached to *serai*.

10	Civil	" ..	Two rooms, 16 feet by 14 feet each; two dressing-rooms; two bath-rooms (pucca, with sheet-iron roof).	Dak bungalow.
11	"	" ..	Two drawing-rooms, 18 feet by 16 feet each; two bedrooms, 12 feet by 16 feet each; three bath-rooms, 9 feet by 7½ feet each; one pantry, 9 feet by 7½ feet.	Civil rest-house.
12	Forest	Thandiani ..		This bungalow, originally a mess-house of the 5th Gurkhas, is in ruins, and is being replaced by another on a site nearer the rest-house of the station.
13	Civil	" ..	Two rooms, 14 feet by 12 feet each; two bath-rooms, 8 feet by 6½ feet each (dhajji, with pucca chimneys and shingle roof).	Dak bungalow.
14	"	Kalapani ..	Two rooms, 12 feet by 10 feet each: two bath-rooms (pucca, with shingle roof).	" "
15	District and Municipal	Abbottabad ..	Two rooms, 18 feet by 15 feet each; two bath-rooms, 10 feet by 7 feet each, in front corner of *serai* (pucca, with mud roof).	In *serai*.
16	Civil	" ..	Two rooms, 16 feet by 14 feet each; two other rooms; two bath-rooms (pucca, with shingle roof).	Dak bungalow.
17	"	Tarbela ..	One room, 14 feet by 12 feet; two smaller rooms; two bath-rooms (pucca, with flat mud roof).	Belonged originally to the Salt Department.

TABLE XXIX.—*continued.*

REST-HOUSES OF ALL DEPARTMENTS IN THE HAZARA DISTRICT, AND WITHIN A DISTANCE OF ABOUT SIX MILES OUTSIDE THE DISTRICT BOUNDARIES.

1	2	3	4	5
No.	Department to which the Rest-House Belongs.	Name of Place.	Accommodation.	Remarks.
18	Military Works ..	Bagnotar ..	Two rooms, 16 feet by 12 feet each; two bathrooms (plank, with pucca chimneys and sheet-iron roof).	This is the old dak bungalow, and has been transferred to the Military Works Department, for use as a rest-house.
19	Civil	" ..	Two bedrooms, 14 feet by 16 feet each; one bedroom, 18 feet by 16 feet; one dressing-room, 12 feet by 7½ feet; one dressing-room, 9½ feet by 7½ feet; three bath-rooms, 7½ feet by 7½ feet each (sheet-iron roof).	This is the new dak bungalow at Bagnotar, which was completed in 1900-1901, at a cost of 4,492 rupees, without outhouses. The outhouses of the old dak bungalow (No. 18) are attached to the new.

20	Forest	Nathia Gali ..	Two rooms; one dressing- and two bath-rooms.	The official residence of the D. C. F. Hazara in the hot weather. Is being enlarged.
21	Civil	" ..	One room, 20 feet by 14 feet; four smaller rooms; four bath-rooms (planks, with pucca chimneys and shingle roof).	Generally occupied by the Deputy-Commissioner in the hot weather.
22	District and Municipal.	Sultanpur ..	One room, 16 feet by 16 feet; one bath-room, 10 feet by 8 feet (pucca, with mud roof).	Attached to *serai*, Sultanpur, half-way between Abbottabad and Haripur.
23	Civil	Haripur ..	Two rooms, 20 feet by 16 feet; four other rooms; four bath-rooms (pucca, with flat mud roof).	Dak bungalow.
24	Provincial	Abbottabad ..	Two rooms, 16 feet by 14 feet and 15 feet by 14 feet; four bedrooms, 15 feet by 16 feet, 16 feet by 12 feet, 16 feet by 16 feet, and 12 feet by 12 feet; three dressing-rooms, $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet by 8 feet, $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet by $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet, $9\frac{1}{2}$ feet by $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet; four bath-rooms, $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet by $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet, $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet by 9 feet, $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet by 8 feet, $9\frac{1}{2}$ feet by 6 feet; four godowns—three, $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet by $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet, and one $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet by 8 feet; one cook-house, 9 feet by 14 feet; one store-room, $9\frac{3}{4}$ feet by $7\frac{1}{4}$ feet; two halls, 7 feet by 14 feet, 7 feet by 11 feet.	Sessions house.

TABLE XXIX.—*continued.*

REST-HOUSES OF ALL DEPARTMENTS IN THE HAZARA DISTRICT, AND WITHIN A DISTANCE OF ABOUT SIX MILES OUTSIDE THE DISTRICT BOUNDARIES.

1	2	3	4	5
No.	Department to which the Rest-House Belongs.	Name of Place.	Accommodation.	Remarks.
25	District and Municipal	Haripur ..	Two rooms, 13 feet by 12 feet each; two bath-rooms, 10 feet by 8 feet each (pucca, with mud roof).	In *serai.*
26	Civil	Changla Gali ..	Four main rooms, 14¾ feet by 14¾ feet each; four dressing-rooms; four bath-rooms; one pantry (roof sheet-iron).	Dak bungalow.
27	Forest	" ..	One room, 18½ feet by 20½ feet; two bed-rooms; two dressing-rooms; two bath-rooms; two other rooms (plank walls, with pucca chimneys and shingle roof).	Formerly the official residence (now transferred to Nathia Gali) of the D. C. F. Hazara in the hot weather.
28	"	Mari	Two rooms, 16 feet by 14 feet; two bath-rooms.	Transferred to Forest Department in 1886. Mari is on a spur below Changla Gali.
29	District	Hatar	One room, 16 feet by 15 feet; one bath-room, 10 feet by 8 feet; one cook-room, 10 feet by 8 feet (kachcha, with mud roof).	Attached to *serai.*
30	Police	Khanpur ..	One large room, 22 feet by 14 feet; one side room, 6 feet by 6 feet; one bath-room, 6 feet by 6 feet (stone and mud, with kachcha roof).	

31	Civil	Dunga Gali ..	Two rooms, 16 feet by 15 feet each ; two dressing-rooms ; two bedrooms ; four bath-rooms (pucca, with sheet-iron and shingle roof).	Dak bungalow.
32	District	,, ...	One room, 14 feet by 17 feet ; one bath-room, 9 feet by 4 feet (pucca, with shingle roof).	In *serai*.
33	Military Works ..	Kaner	Two rooms and two bath-rooms.	Within Hazara District, but maintained by P. W. D., Rawalpindi District, being on the Rawalpindi-Kashmir road, near Kohala.
34	District and Municipal	Dunga Gali ..	One room, 17 feet by 14 feet ; one bath-room, 9 feet by 4 feet (pucca, with shingle roof).	Attached to *serai*.
35	Dak Bungalow ..	Kohala ..	Four rooms, 16 feet by 14 feet each ; four dressing-rooms ; four bath-rooms (pucca, with shingle roof).	Within Hazara District, but maintained by P. W. D., Rawalpindi District.
36	District	Dehdar ..	One room, 16 feet by 16 feet ; one bath-room, 8 feet by 10 feet (kachcha, with mud roof).	Attached to *serai*.
37	Military Works ..	Ahl	One main room, 15 feet by 12 feet ; one bath-room (kachcha pucca, with shingle roof).	In the Konsh valley.
38	,, ..	Dunga Gali ..	One sitting-room, 15 feet by 12 feet ; two bed-rooms ; two bath-rooms (pucca walls and sheet-iron roof).	
39	,, ..	Jaba	Two main rooms, 14 feet by 16 feet each ; two dressing-rooms ; two bath-rooms (sawn shingle roof).	This rest-house is on the Kagan valley road between Mansehra and Balakot.

TABLE XXIX.—*continued*

REST-HOUSES OF ALL DEPARTMENTS IN THE HAZARA DISTRICT, AND WITHIN A DISTANCE OF ABOUT SIX MILES OUTSIDE THE DISTRICT BOUNDARIES.

1	2	3	4	5
No.	Department to which the Rest-House Belongs.	Name of Place.	Accommodation.	Remarks.
40	Military Works ..	Balakot ..	Two main rooms, 18 feet by 15 feet each; one godown, $6\frac{1}{4}$ feet by 6 feet; two bath-rooms, $15\frac{1}{2}$ feet by 6 feet each (shingle roof).	On the Kagan valley road at the foot of the valley.
41	.. ..	Kawai ..	Two main rooms, 16 feet by 14 feet each; one godown, 8 feet by 6 feet; and two bath-rooms, $15\frac{1}{2}$ feet by 6 feet (shingle roof).	On the Kagan valley road.
42	.. ..	Mahandri ..	Two rooms, 16 feet by 14 feet each; one go-down, $7\frac{1}{4}$ feet by 6 feet; two bath-rooms, $12\frac{3}{4}$ feet by 6 feet each (shingle roof).	.. ..
43	.. ..	Kagan ..	Two rooms, 14 feet by 12 feet each; two bath-rooms, 15 feet by 6 feet, and 17 feet by 6 feet (shingle roof).	.. ..
44	.. ..	Naran	Two rooms, 14 feet by 12 feet each; two bath-rooms, 12 feet by 6 feet each; one godown, $6\frac{3}{4}$ feet by 6 feet (shingle roof).	.. ..
45	.. ..	Batakundi ..	Ditto ditto ..	.. ..
46	.. ..	Burawai ..	One room, 14 feet by 14 feet; one room, 14 feet by $9\frac{1}{4}$ feet (shingle roof).	.. ..

47	Military Works ..	Besal	Upper story: one bedroom, 15¾ feet by 14 feet; one bath-room, 6½ feet by 5¼ feet; one godown, 7 feet by 5¼ feet. Lower story: one servant's room; one cook-room, 23 feet by 13 feet.	A block-house.
48	,, ..	Gitidas ..	One bedroom, 12 feet by 14 feet; one bath-room, 8 feet by 8 feet; one godown and passage, 8 feet by 7 feet; one veranda-room, 8 feet by 4½ feet.	On the Kagan valley road, at the head of the valley.
49	Police	Ghazi	One main room, 14 feet by 14½ feet; one dressing-room; one bedroom; one bath-room (slate roof).	On the Indus: used to belong to the Salt Department.
50	,, ...	Kirpilian ..	Two rooms and two bath-rooms (pucca, with Naini Tal pattern roof).	,, ,,
51	Border Military Police	Jal Gali ..	Upper story of post 7½ feet by 5½ feet (mud roof).	On the Black Mountain.
52	,, ,,	Kathai Gali ..	One room, 21 feet by 21 feet, with corrugated iron sheet roof.	On the road from the Agror valley into Konsh.
53	,, ,,	Panj Gali ..	Lower story used as rest-house, 13½ feet by 13½ feet, with corrugated iron sheet roof.	On the Black Mountain.
54	,, ,,	Sambalbhut ..	Upper story, 40 feet by 15 feet (sheet iron roof); lower story, 2 feet by 40 feet by 15 feet.	,, ,,
55	,, ,,	Barchar ..	Upper story, 41 feet by 21 feet (galvanized iron sheet roof); lower story, 2 feet by 41 feet by 21 feet.	,, ,,

TABLE XXIX.—*continued.*

REST-HOUSES OF ALL DEPARTMENTS IN THE HAZARA DISTRICT, AND WITHIN A DISTANCE OF ABOUT SIX MILES OUTSIDE THE DISTRICT BOUNDARIES.

1	2	3
DEPARTMENT TO WHICH THE REST-HOUSE BELONGS.	NAME OF PLACE.	REMARKS.
	Rest-Houses outside District Boundaries.	
Police	Hazro	In the Attock District.
Public Works	Hassan Abdal	
Civil Dak bungalow	"	
Public Works	Serai Kala	In Rawalpindi District.
Civil Dak bungalow	Barakau	
" "	Tret	
" "	Dewal	
" "	Hatti	
" "	Gondal	In the Attock District.
" "	Attock	
Public Works	"	
	Rest-Houses beyond Babusar towards Chilas.	
	Babusar	Seven miles below the pass and 11 miles from Gitidas, a few miles below Babusar village.
	Chilas	Twenty-six miles below the pass on left bank of Indus and on Shuk Nullah.

N.-W. F. PROVINCE DISTRICT
GAZETTEERS : VOLUME I. A.
HAZARA DISTRICT, 1907

TABLE XXX.—POLYMETRICAL TABLE OF DISTANCES.

	Abbottabad.	Ahl.	Babusar.	Baffa.	Bagnotar.	Balakot.	Bakot.	Bara Gali.	Barian.	Besal.	Batakundi.	Battal.	Bararkot.	Burawai.	Changla Gali.	Chitta Batta.	Chattar Plain.	Dal Mohat.	Darband.	Dehdar.	Dor Bridge.	Dunga Gali.	Garhi Habibullah Khan.	Ghazi.	Gitidas.	Haripur.	Harroh River (Hassan Abdal Road).	Hassan Abdal Railway-Station.	Hatar.	Jaba.	Jal Gali.	Kagan.	Kakul.	Kakul Spring.	Kalabagh.	Kalapani.	Karun.	Kathai Gali.	Khaira Gali.	Khaki.	Khanpur.	Kirpilian.	Kawai.	Lalogali.	Lora.	Malkandi.	Mahandri.	Mangal.	Mansehra.	Mari.	Miranjani Spring.	Nara.	Narun.	Nathia Gali.	Oghi.	Panj Gali.	Sambalbhut.	Serai Kala.	Sherwan.	Shinkiari.	Sirikot.	Sultanpur.	Tawi.	Thandiani.	Thapla.	Tarbela.	Utar Shisha.
Abbottabad	Abbottabad.
Ahl	40	Ahl.
Babusar	132½	—	Babusar.
Baffa	26¾	—	—	Baffa.
Bagnotar	11	51	—	37¾	Bagnotar.
Balakot	40	—	92½	—	51	Balakot.
Bakot *via* Nathia Gali	29	—	—	—	—	42	Bakot *via* Nathia Gali.
Bara Gali	15	55	147½	41¾	4	55	14	Bara Gali.
Barian	34	74	166½	—	23	74	—	19	Barian.
Besal	120	—	12½	—	131	80	—	—	154	Besal.
Batakundi	101	—	31½	—	112	61	—	116	135	19	Batakundi.
Battal	44	3	—	—	55	37	—	59	78	157	138	Battal.
Bararkot	37½	—	107	—	48½	14½	—	52½	71½	94½	75½	49½	Bararkot.
Burawai	109	—	23½	—	120	69	—	124	143	11	8	103	83½	Burawai.
Changla Gali	30	—	162½	—	19	70	—	15	4	150	131	74	67½	139	Changla Gali.
Chitta Batta	22	—	110½	—	33	18	—	37	56	98	79	—	15½	87	52	Chitta Batta.
Chattar Plain	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Chattar Plain.
Dal Mohat (*Indus ferry*)	42	—	174½	—	53	82	—	57	76	162	143	59	79½	151	72	64	—	Dal Mohat.
Darband *via* Haripur	50	—	—	—	53	60	—	57	76	162	143	38	79½	151	72	64	—	21	Darband *via* Haripur.
Dehdar	32	—	164½	—	43	72	—	47	66	152	133	76	69¼	141	62	54	—	28	36	Dehdar.
Dor Bridge	9	—	141½	—	20	49	—	24	43	129	110	—	46½	118	39	31	—	33	—	23	Dor Bridge.
Dunga Gali	23	—	155½	—	12	63	12	8	11	143	124	67	60½	132	7	45	—	65	65	55	32	Dunga Gali.
Garhi Habibullah Khan	35	—	104½	—	46	12	—	50	69	132	73	35	2½	81	65	13	—	77	63	67	44	58	Garhi Habibullah Khan.
Ghazi	48	—	180½	—	59	88	—	63	82	168	149	65	85½	157	78	70	—	6	27	34	39	71	83	Ghazi.
Gitidas	128	—	4½	—	139	88	—	143	162	8	27	—	102½	19	158	106	—	170	170	160	137	151	100	176	Gitidas.
Haripur	23	—	155½	—	34	63	—	38	57	143	124	66	59½	132	53	45	—	19	27	9	14	46	58	25	151	Haripur.
Harroh River (Hassan Abdal Road)	37	—	169½	—	48	77	—	52	71	157	138	—	74½	146	67	59	—	33½	41½	5½	28½	60	72	39½	165	14½	Harroh River (Hassan Abdal Road).
Hassan Abdal Railway-Station	42¾	—	174¼	—	53¾	82¾	—	57¾	76¾	162¾	143¾	86¾	80¼	151¾	72¾	64¾	—	38¾	46¾	10¾	33¾	65¾	77¾	44¾	170¾	19¾	5¼	Hassan Abdal Railway-Station.
Hatar	36	—	168½	—	47	76	—	51	70	156	137	80	73½	145	56	58	—	32	40	6	27	50	71	40	164	13	—	9¾	Hatar.
Jaba	29½	—	103	—	40½	10½	—	44½	63½	90½	71½	—	12½	79½	59½	7½	—	7½	—	61½	38½	52½	10½	77½	98½	52½	66½	72¼	65½	Jaba.
Jal Gali	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Jal Gali.
Kagan	77	—	55½	—	88	37	—	92	111	43	24	74	51½	32	107	55	—	119	97	109	86	100	49	125	51	100	114	119¾	113	47½	—	Kagan.
Kakul	4	—	134	—	9	41½	—	13	—	121½	102½	—	39	110½	28	23½	—	46	—	36	13	21	36½	—	129½	27	—	46¾	40	31	—	78½	Kakul.
„ Spring	6½	—	136½	—	11½	44	—	15½	—	124	104	—	41½	113	30½	26	—	48½	—	38½	15½	23½	39	—	132	29½	—	49¼	42½	33½	—	81	2½	Kakul Spring.
Kalabagh	18	—	150¼	—	7	58	—	3	16	138	119	62	55½	127	12	40	—	60	60	50	27	4½	53	66	146	41	—	60¾	54	47½	—	95	—	18½	Kalabagh.
Kalapani	10	—	142½	—	14	50	—	25	42	130	111	—	47½	119	38	32	—	52	52	42	19	33	45	—	138	33	—	52¾	46	39½	—	87	8	10½	28	Kalapani.
Karun	54	—	—	—	65	—	—	69	88	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Karun.
Kathai Gali	—	4½	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Kathai Gali.
Khaira Gali	32¼	—	165½	—	22	73	—	17	1½	153	134	77	70½	142	2	55	—	75	75	65	42	10	68	81	161	56	70	76¾	69	62½	—	110	31	33½	15	41	—	—	Khaira Gali.
Khaki	24	—	124½	—	35	32	—	39	58	112	93	36	29½	101	54	14	—	53	35	56	33	47	27	62	120	47	—	66¾	60	—	—	69	22½	25	42	34	—	—	57	Khaki.
Khanpur	38	—	170½	—	49	78	—	53	72	158	139	82	75½	147	68	60	—	34	42	12	29	61	73	40	166	15	—	14¾	6	67½	—	115	42	44½	56	48	—	—	71	62	Khanpur.
Kirpilian	47	—	—	—	50	66	—	54	73	159	140	41	76½	148	69	61	—	18	3	33	38	62	61	24	35	24	—	43¾	37	—	—	103	43	45½	57	49	—	—	72	38	39	Kirpilian.
Kawai	52½	—	80	—	63½	12½	—	67½	86½	67½	48½	—	27	56½	82½	30½	—	94½	—	84½	61½	75½	24½	—	57½	75½	—	94¼	88½	23	—	24½	54	56½	—	62½	—	—	85½	—	—	—	Kawai.
Lalogali	36	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Lalogali.
Lora	33	—	165½	—	38	73	—	34	22	153	—	77	—	—	18	55	—	43	52	35	24	26	68	49	—	24	—	75¾	37	—	—	110	—	—	30	—	—	—	21	57	36	49	—	—	Lora.
Malkandi	59	—	73½	—	70	19	—	74	93	61	42	—	33½	50	89	37	—	101	—	91	68	82	31	—	69	82	—	101¾	—	95	—	18	60½	63	—	69	—	—	92	—	—	—	6½	—	—	Malkandi.
Mahandri	65½	—	67	—	76½	25½	—	80½	99½	54½	35½	—	40	43½	95½	43½	—	107½	—	97½	74½	88½	37½	—	62½	88½	—	108¼	—	36	—	11½	67	69½	—	75½	—	—	98½	—	—	—	13	—	—	6½	Mahandri.
Mangal	8	32	124½	—	19	32	—	23	42	112	93	36	29½	101	38	14	—	50	44	40	17	31	27	56	120	31	—	50¾	44	21½	—	69	9½	12	26	18	—	—	41	16	46	37	—	—	1	51	57½	Mangal.
Mansehra	16	24	116½	10¾	27	24	—	31	50	104	85	28	21½	93	46	6	—	58	44	48	25	39	19	64	112	39	—	58¾	52	13½	—	61	17½	20	34	26	38	—	49	8	54	42	36½	—	49	43	49½	8	Mansehra.
Mari	39	—	—	—	27	79	—	23	12	—	—	—	—	—	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Mari.
Miranjani Spring	23	—	—	—	13	64	—	8	18	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	—	47	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Miranjani Spring.
Nara	21	—	—	—	20	61	—	16	20	—	—	65	—	—	18	43	—	45	53	35	—	16	56	51	—	26	—	45¾	39	—	—	98	—	—	12	—	—	—	21	45	41	50	—	—	24	—	—	29	37	—	—	Nara.
Narun	91	—	41½	—	102	51	—	—	125	29	10	—	—	18	—	69	—	133	—	—	100	114	63	—	37	114	—	133¾	—	61½	—	14	92½	95	—	101	—	—	124	—	—	—	38½	—	—	32	25½	83	—	—	—	—	Narun.
Nathia Gali	20	—	152½	—	9	60	13	5	14	140	121	64	57½	129	10	42	—	62	62	52	29	2½	55	68	148	43	—	62¾	56	49½	—	97	18	20½	2	30	—	—	12½	44	58	59	—	—	28	79	85½	28	36	18	4	14	111	Nathia Gali.
Oghi	36	10¾	136½	—	47	44	—	51	70	124	105	14	41½	113	66	26	18¾	45	24	63	45	59	39½	51	132	52	—	78¾	65	33½	8½	81	37½	40	54	46	—	—	69	12	67	27	—	—	69	63	69½	28	20½	—	—	57	95	56	Oghi.
Panj Gali	49½	—	—	—	60½	57½	—	64½	83½	153½	134½	—	—	142½	79½	—	—	—	—	—	58½	72½	—	—	161½	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	82½	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	13½	Panj Gali.
Sambalbhut	43	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8¼	—	51	53½	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	27	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	Sambalbhut.
Serai Kala	45	—	177½	—	56	85	—	60	78	165	146	—	82½	154	75	67	—	41	—	—	36	68	80	—	173	22	—	—	—	74½	—	—	49	51½	—	55	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	136	—	—	—	—	Serai Kala.
Sherwan	17	—	149½	—	28	40	—	32	51	137	118	44	54½	126	47	39	—	—	29	49	26	40	35	—	145	40	—	59¾	53	—	—	77	21	23	35	27	—	—	50	25	55	22	—	—	50	104	110½	18	16	—	—	38	108	37	36	—	—	62	Sherwan.
Shinkiari	27	13½	113½	—	38	21	—	42	61	101	82	17	16½	90	51	—	—	70	57	60	36	50	14	72	109	51	—	69¾	64	—	—	58	28½	31	45	37	—	—	60	19	66	48	—	—	61	76	82½	19	11	—	—	49	72	47	24	—	—	72	28	Shinkiari.
Sirikot	35	167	167	—	46	75	—	50	69	155	136	68	72½	144	65	57	—	14	30	23	26	58	70	8	163	12	—	51¾	27	64½	—	112	30½	41½	53	45	—	—	68	59	27	27	—	—	36	40	46½	43	51	—	—	38	126	55	54	—	—	—	32	63	Sirikot.
Sultanpur	11	—	143½	—	22	51	—	26	45	131	112	55	48½	120	41	33	—	31	39	21	2	34	46	37	139	12	—	31¾	25	40½	—	88	15	47½	29	21	—	—	44	35	24	36	—	—	30	94	100½	19	27	—	—	14	102	31	47	—	—	34	28	39	24	Sultanpur.
Tawi	42	—	174½	—	53	70	—	57	76	162	143	47	79½	151	72	64	—	12	9	28	33	65	71	18	170	19	—	38¾	34	71½	—	107	46	48½	60	52	—	—	75	44	34	6	—	—	43	70	76½	51	53	—	—	45	133	62	33	—	—	—	32	54	21	31	Tawi.
Thandiani	16	—	148½	—	24	56	—	28	48	136	117	60	53½	125	44	38	—	58	58	48	25	36	51	64	144	39	—	58¾	52	45½	—	93	14	16½	31	6	—	—	47	40	54	55	—	—	41	101	107½	24	32	—	—	37	107	33	52	—	—	61	33	43	51	27	58	Thandiani.
Thapla	31	—	163½	—	42	71	—	46	65	151	132	58	64½	140	61	53	—	11	20	17	22	54	66	17	159	8	—	27¾	21	60½	—	108	35	37½	49	41	—	—	64	54	23	17	—	—	32	75	81½	39	47	—	—	34	122	51	44	—	—	30	22	58	10	20	11	47	Thapla.
Tarbela	36	—	168½	—	47	76	—	51	70	156	137	53	69½	145	66	58	—	6	15	22	27	59	71	12	164	13	—	32¾	26	65½	—	113	40	42½	54	46	—	—	69	50	28	12	—	—	37	90	90½	44	52	—	—	39	127	56	39	—	—	35	—	60	15	25	6	52	5	Tarbela.
Utar Shisha	25	—	107½	—	36	15	—	40	59	95	76	—	12½	84	55	3	—	6	—	—	34	48	10	—	103	48	—	67¾	—	4½	—	52	26½	29	43	35	—	—	58	—	—	—	27½	—	—	34	40½	17	9	—	—	—	66	45	—	—	—	70	—	4	60	36	69	41	55	51	Utar Shisha.

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TABLE XLIV.

GENERAL COLLECTIONS OF REVENUE (IN RUPEES).

1	2	3	4	5	6
	1901–02.	1902–03.	1903–04.	1904–05.	1905–06.
Land Revenue ..	2,36,853	2,43,495	2,44,494	2,78,477	4,13,551
Stamps { Judicial ..	43,874	37,216	37,433	47,939	54,564
Stamps { Non-Judicial	22,939	25,057	25,457	21,784	22,268
Income Tax	14,815	15,424	14,984	18,486	20,966
Excise	16,169	17,787	21,198	22,024	24,055
Registration	3,760	4,023	3,789	2,396	3,286
Local Rate	32,646	34,874	33,310	33,663	50,884
TOTAL	3,71,055	3,77,876	3,80,665	4,24,769	5,89,574

GLOSSARY OF VERNACULAR TERMS NOT EXPLAINED IN THE TEXT.

Bajra, spiked millet (*Penicillaria spicata*).
Chari, *jowar* sown thickly and cut green for fodder.
China, a small millet (*Panicum miliaceum*).
Dal, cooked pulse.
Ghi, clarified butter.
Havildar, non-commissioned officer in a native infantry regiment.
Ijara, lease of revenue.
Ilaqa, tract of country.
Imam, priest of a mosque.
Inam, a free grant in cash.
Jagir, an assignment of land revenue.
Jagirdar, holder of an assignment of land revenue.
Jemadar, native infantry officer.
Jezailchi, a man armed with a *jezail*, or flint-lock.
Jirga, assembly of elders.
Jowar, great-millet (*Sorghum vulgare*).
Kamin, a village menial.
Kanungo, a revenue official who supervises the *patwaris*.
Kharif, the autumn crop or harvest.
Khasra, register of fields.
Khewat, register of owners.
Khillat, a reward bestowed by Government (literally a robe of honour).
Lambardar, a village headman.
Mafi, a revenue free grant.
Malik, headman, chief (with a short 'a'; *Málik* with the long 'a' means 'owner').
Málikana, fee paid in recognition of proprietary title.
Naib-tahsildar, an official next in rank below a *tahsildar*, and usually the latter's assistant.
Nazrana, a fee or due claimed by Government.
Nazul, property belonging to Government.
Pahal, initiatory rite of the Sikh religion.
Parohit, a Hindu family priest.
Pattu, a species of woollen cloth.
Patwari, a village accountant.
Phulkari, a coloured sheet worn by women.
Rabi, the spring crop or harvest.
Rasum, dues.
Resaldar, a native cavalry officer.
Serikhor, a person in enjoyment of a *seri*, that is, a grant made in acknowledgment of religious sanctity.
Sowar, horseman, cavalry soldier.
Tahsil, subdivision of a district.
Tahsildar, official in chief executive charge ot a *tahsil*.
Taluqa, subdivision of a district (under Sikh rule).
Taraf, subdivision of the proprietary body of a village.
Taramira, an oil-seed (*Eruca sativa*).
Thana, a police-station, or the area supervised from a police-station.
Zamindar, landowner or cultivator (adjective form, *zamindari*).
Ziarat, a Muhammadan shrine.

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